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THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I

THE RELATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS TO THE TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL IMPROVE- MENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

BY

CHARLES D. LOWRY

District Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois

EDITED BY

MANFRED J. HOLMES

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois

SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

THE SUBJECT OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE WASHINGTON
MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY ON MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, AT 7:45
P. M., AND WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1908, AT 4:30 P. M.

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PREFACE

Three years ago the subject of the *Seventh Yearbook* was proposed as an important field for the National Society to investigate. Since that time several of the ablest and most progressive superintendents in the United States have made positive advance in the solution of the problems involved in the relation of superintendents and principals to the training and improvement of their teachers.

That the study presented in this *Yearbook* should have been made by one who has been connected with the movement at perhaps its most active storm center is fortunate for manifest reasons. Charles D. Lowry has been a district superintendent of schools in Chicago for about seven years, and therefore has the insight necessary to interpret the reports sent in from all parts of the United States and select and classify and estimate the value of data contained in such reports.

It is hoped that this *Yearbook* will be of service to superintendents, principals, and boards of education who are earnestly working to solve the important and difficult problem involved.

One important part of the *Seventh Yearbook* is intentionally postponed to be published later under separate cover. This part omitted is the supplementary study of the kindergarten in its relation to elementary education. This supplement is to be devoted entirely to the practical relation, the necessary unity and continuity of kindergarten and primary education. Subscribers to the *Yearbook* will get this supplement as a part of the present issue without extra charge.

M. J. HOLMES

INTRODUCTION

Recently there was sent out by the secretary of this Society to many of its members and others, a circular¹ asking each (1) to give his views as to the need for carrying on systematic work for training the teaching force to a higher degree of efficiency, and (2) to make a statement of the nature of such work, if any, that is carried on in the school system with which he is connected. A number of very interesting replies were received. The following paper is practically a summary of these reports. No effort has

¹ This circular read as follows:

The next meeting of the Society for the Scientific Study of Education (February, 1908) will be devoted to the discussion of the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of teachers after they have entered the profession. To Mr. C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Chicago, has been assigned the duty of preparing the paper. This paper is to contain (1) a statement of the reasons why the work of improvement of teachers should be carried on systematically, and (2) a summary of the best methods that are in use throughout the country to attain the end desired.

Will you kindly prepare a statement covering these two points as seen from the standpoint of the work in your city? The inclosed questionnaire has been prepared simply to make your reply easier. It need not be followed if you prefer to adopt some other plan.

It will be particularly interesting to know what is being done in your city for the improvement of teachers. Wherever printed rules of the board of education will supply this information, kindly furnish a copy.

This paper will be printed in the *Yearbook* of the Society. We hope to make it a valuable handbook for superintendents and boards of education. It is therefore desirable that the information be as full and accurate as possible. We should also like the privilege of printing *verbatim* portions of any returns that may seem suited for such use.

The importance of this study and its practical value when published in book form surely warrant our asking even the busiest superintendents to co-operate by returning at the earliest possible day the data herein requested.

The time for preparing the paper is short; therefore please send reply directly to C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Board of Education Rooms, Chicago, Ill.

Yours very respectfully,

MANFRED J. HOLMES,
Secretary, and Editor of YEARBOOK

been made to state the number of replies to each point nor the number of places reporting a certain kind of work, the effort being to present, as a whole, the views of the various correspondents on the question of the need for the work and a summary of the leading lines of work that are being undertaken. In a few instances, the rules of the boards of education have been quoted or summarized.

The thanks of the writer are hereby extended to all who so kindly co-operated in this work. The author has added but little to the statements found in the various papers.

Two important lines of work for the improvement of teachers have not been touched in this study, namely, the "Preparation of Teachers," and the "Certification of Teachers." Both of these topics, however, have been treated in previous Yearbooks of the Society.

THE RELATION OF PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS TO THE TRAINING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

CHARLES D. LOWRY

District Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.

THE PROBLEM

Success in any occupation depends upon the native ability, the initial equipment, and the intensity of the desire for improvement existing in the worker. This statement applies to work in its broadest sense, including that of the artist, the professional man, and the mechanic.

The intensity of the desire for improvement is in direct proportion to the stimulus which it receives. This stimulus may come from the worker's conscientiousness and his love for excellence, or it may be the result of external influences, such as the opportunity to obtain pecuniary or other rewards. Conscientiousness and love for excellence are peculiar to no rank of society; there will be, doubtless, about as many people having these qualities in one occupation as in another. The effect of this stimulus, therefore, is about equally potent in all. The differences lie chiefly in the external stimulation.

In most occupations the encouragement for improvement is furnished by the conditions governing the practice of the occupation itself. A physician who is not well equipped, who is unsuccessful in diagnosis, who does not keep abreast of progress in the treatment of disease, cannot retain any considerable practice and is seldom trusted with difficult cases. The public knowing little of medicine, can yet apply the rule of judging a tree by its fruits; they can tell a sick child from a well one and they soon learn to judge pretty fairly as to a physician's ability to heal.

With the teaching profession, it is otherwise. The public are not so successful in discriminating a well-taught child from one poorly taught. The indications are not so pronounced. The sick child is

unhappy and makes those about him suffer; the poorly taught child is not unhappy and seldom causes his parents much anxiety on that score; the mischief is insidious; the consequences come to the surface only in later years.

In medicine the public demands that which is modern. In school work, they are apt to demand the ancient. Parents like to have their children taught in the good old-fashioned way. The desire for better work does not come from the public, but from the progressive members of the teaching profession. This, then, is the first and greatest reason why the present topic, "The Relation of the Principal and the Superintendent to the Improvement of Teachers," is of special importance. The plans for improvement must originate with them and be carried forward by them, if they are ever to come at all.

When the conditions under which the work of teaching is done are examined into, the need for carrying this work on steadily and systematically is shown more clearly. To carry a little farther the comparison between the medical profession and that of teaching: the physician cannot begin to practice until he has passed through a lengthy and somewhat severe course of training, which training has been passed upon by legally constituted authorities. This severe requirement is of recent growth. A century ago, a man might begin the practice of medicine with as much ease and as little training as is needed today in many parts of the country for young men and young women to begin teaching. The laws in force in many of the larger cities give great encouragement to teachers who have graduated from accredited normal schools having at least a two-year course, and to students who have graduated from accredited colleges having pedagogical courses; but it is still true that owing to the scarcity of teachers there are being admitted to the service in practically all school systems teachers who began their work with only a high-school education, and in many places with much less than this. Furthermore, there are today in probably all school systems many teachers who began their service before the requirements were anything like as high as they are today, and when the examinations themselves were much easier than they are now. Therefore, without relaxing their efforts to secure a high degree of preparation in teachers, the superintendent and the principal must

give more time and attention to making good teachers of those now in service.

The situation is well illustrated by the following quotations:

In Baltimore for many years prior to 1900, the indispensable minimum of scholarship for teaching in the elementary schools was provided for by the requirement of high-school graduation or its equivalent as a condition of employment. Graduation from the high school was here, as in many other cities, very ill-advisedly taken as evidence of ability to teach. A few years earlier, a still lower standard prevailed. There are teachers yet in the service whose attainments at the time of their appointment were tested only by an examination about suited to pupils in an upper grammar grade of an elementary school. These, however, are few, and they have gained increased scholarship while teaching. In either case the young teacher was placed in charge of a class with only the empirical ideas about teaching that came unconsciously from years of association in elementary and high schools with her own teachers, themselves, in many instances, not especially well qualified for their work, and consequently, presenting for imitation not the best models. A teacher thus equipped has some knowledge of the common branches, but she knows little of the learning process and, therefore, her efforts are uneconomically expended. She does not know how to present subjects in such a manner as to engage the child's interest and call forth his best efforts; consequently, disciplinary problems are the prominent ones. She begins with the younger children because these are the only ones she can keep in order. A few teachers of superior natural ability quickly gain considerable skill; others, in the course of time, achieve a moderate degree of success; and still others, equally conscientious and faithful, begin their work in a purely formal and mechanical way, and, if left undisturbed, soon become chained in a dull and lifeless routine.

The situation as regards the teaching force of Kansas City (Mo.) is similar to that of many other cities rapidly growing. The demand for teachers is constant. We employ as many experienced teachers from the outside as are attracted to us by the salary offered. Previous to 1891, eligibility to appointment to the city schools depended upon passing an examination given by the county commissioner. Few applicants ever failed to pass it. Teachers, except those holding state certificates, were examined annually or biennially, therefore, for the purpose of keeping up the standard(?). Attendance at the county institute was recognized as an equivalent. Few ever were absent. About 1891, the state legislature changed the law relating to the examination of our city teachers. Since that time a committee of two principals and a high-school teacher has constituted the examining board, the stand-

ard of whose examinations has been essentially higher than that of the county commissioner.

The school board of Kansas City does not require professional training. As conditions are now it could not make such a requirement. We have no city training school, no city normal college, no teachers' college. Of the annual output of the five normal schools in the state, we receive, obviously, a very small part. Neither is conformity to a high standard of scholarship required, unless the ability to pass the preliminary examination is so accounted. While the school board places a correct value on a college diploma, it is not required. Notwithstanding this, a considerable number of the teachers, both in the high schools and in the elementary schools, are college bred. . . . We have among us scholarly teachers who are graduates of high schools only. Their student days have never ended. We have among us representatives of both foreign and American universities. We have teachers of native ability who have had but little, if any, strictly professional preparation. We have teachers who, to a general education, have added such professional training as is given in a two-year course at a state normal school, and others who have taken a year's course. Among our teachers are several who, previous to accepting an appointment in this city, were teaching in a normal school, or a college, or acting as superintendent of a town-school system. We have representatives from several teachers' colleges. We also have teachers who were educated in various academies such as once flourished in many of the states. And we have the contingent, increasing each year, that has graduated from the city high schools, passed the teachers' examination, substituted one year in the schools, and received temporary appointment as teachers. During the period of substituting, these beginners have learned a few devices. They are almost helpless if left to themselves. They have little knowledge of children and little knowledge of the subjects to be taught. They belong to no school of thought, they know nothing of the philosophy of education, or of its history, or of its principles, or of its practice. These at a small salary are put in charge of a room. They have youth and personal charm, and what may be called flexibility of character; they are enthusiastic and eager to succeed. Their personality tides them over the period of their novitiate, and if they remain in the service, they sometimes become valuable members of it.

To quote from the report from Grand Rapids (Wis.):

After such a teacher (high-school graduate) has had a little experience she acquires considerable mechanical skill in teaching. Professional knowledge is liable to become limited to methods and devices. Theories underlying the devices and the larger problems of the nature of the child become to her a sealed book which she neither knows how to open nor does she consider it worth her while to make an attempt.

Even when the teachers who enter the service come with the preparation furnished by the best normal schools and colleges, there is still need for much careful training and instruction. The college graduate while well equipped from an academic standpoint, has only theoretical knowledge of methods of presenting material and of the training and management of children. It is a common experience that these teachers are apt to make a failure in the classroom at the beginning of their work unless they are carefully supported and directed until they have acquired, from practice, skill in meeting classroom problems. With the normal-school graduate, no matter how well the practice work done in connection with her training has been arranged, there must be something artificial about it and the conditions that confront the teacher when she is thrown entirely upon her own resources are very different from those to which she has been accustomed. On the other hand, much of the instruction which she has received on the theoretical lines has been but partly comprehended since she had no real body of experience with which to interpret it; hence, much of the greatest value will have been forgotten before the opportunity to apply has come, and its value in helping her to solve her problems of school work will be largely lost unless it is recalled to her through continued study and careful supervision, and unless the applications of these doctrines of education are pointed out to her in practice. Moreover, these young women rush from childish studies to professional discipline and without having really passed through the changes of girlhood, they undertake to shape the plastic minds of children, minds from which they have by their own rapid physical and emotional growth been removed farther in sympathy than are men and women of more mature years.

A few years ago, the complaint was frequent that the insecurity of tenure worked against the attaining of the best service in the school work. This complaint still applies, no doubt, in rural communities and smaller cities. In the larger cities, the condition is quite the reverse. After a teacher has once become established in a system by virtue of one or two years of moderately successful work, her position becomes practically permanent if she continues to do work which is barely mediocre; and the adoption, in many places, of laws, establishing a teachers' pension fund, by giving the

teachers a sort of legal claim to their positions, has also given much comfort to the mediocre teacher.

Still another, and, perhaps, the most serious reason why it is important to train teachers to their highest efficiency is this: in practically every occupation but ours when a worker becomes less and less efficient, and where, for any reason, it is desirable to retain him in the service, there are found positions of less and less importance which he can fill acceptably or with little detriment to the service. In a graded school, on the contrary, the teacher of the highest efficiency and the teacher of less efficiency have equally important problems to solve, and poor work by either is equally harmful. Each teacher is in charge of forty or fifty children for five hours a day during the years when the physical, mental, and spiritual natures of those children are most plastic. If there is any difference in this regard, it is that the poorer teachers are placed in the lower grades where their weakness is less apparent—the places of all others the worst for the poor teacher, her apparent success in these grades being due to her ability to form these immature and plastic minds upon the bad ideals which she herself represents.

THE SOLUTION

The lines of work reported may be roughly divided into five classes: (1) supervision; (2) work undertaken voluntarily by teachers; (3) work required of teachers; (4) work stimulated by pecuniary rewards or advance in position; (5) miscellaneous.

These lines of work are not always distinct from each other; for example, the work undertaken voluntarily is often that suggested by the superintendent and oftentimes, no doubt, suggested so directly as to seem almost a requirement.

I. *Supervision*

The first method for the improvement of teachers, and the one in most general use, is that of supervision in its various forms. In the smaller cities, the teacher has a peculiar advantage because she is under the supervision of a principal, who has under him but a few teachers, and also the supervision of a superintendent, whose entire corps may be less than one hundred, so that every teacher is known intimately by both the principal and the superintendent and the needs of each one may be carefully discussed and

promptly met. In many of the smaller cities, in addition to the regular teachers there are special teachers of music, drawing, manual training, physical training. These teachers either conduct the work in their respective departments themselves or supervise the work as done by the regular teacher. Where the latter course is pursued, the special teacher gives model lessons in each of the classrooms, criticizes the work that has been done since the last visit, gives directions for future work, and holds classes or institutes for the instruction of teachers in these branches. In many cities the entire work in these special subjects is under the care of the special teachers and the individual principals have little responsibility in the matter.

In a few cities supervision is further extended. In Baltimore, for example, grade supervisors devote their attention to the supervision of the work in one or two grades, the advantage being that by having supervision of such a narrow range of work the supervisor becomes very expert, and the work in all of the schools is brought up to the standard of the excellence of the supervisor herself as far as that is consistent with the varying ability of the teachers with whom she works. She has the advantage of comparing the work done in her special grades in the various schools in the city—an advantage which the principal confined to one building cannot have.

In other places, the work is still further subdivided by the appointment of supervisors of a single subject, as, for instance, arithmetic, throughout the primary grades. A very interesting form of supervision is that given by the supervisor of substitutes, which is reported from one or two cities. This teacher visits each teacher as she begins her work, helps her in the preparation of outlines and in the various problems that arise, meets the entire body of substitutes at stated intervals for purposes of study and instruction. She also visits the newly appointed teacher, works with her in the classroom for a day at a time, and then sends her to visit some other classroom while the supervisor takes charge of the work. On the third day, she remains with the new teacher, discusses with her the conditions that have arisen in her absence and the work which she has seen in the school which she visited.

A most interesting work for associations of schools in rural

communities is that undertaken by Superintendent Cook, in Baltimore County (Md.). Here a supervisor has been appointed to visit and instruct teachers in the work of the primary grades, and another to instruct them in the work in the grammar grades. The supervisor meets each group of teachers once a month and small groups are organized for the consideration of special studies on Saturdays or in the evenings. The board of education contributes toward the expense of these classes.

Beyond question this work of supervision is and always will be the most important of all the ways in which the character of the teaching is to be improved. As the superintendent is, so is the force, especially in the smaller cities where the personality of the superintendent can be felt through all the parts of the system. This influence is exerted in many ways. Mr. Gay, of Haverhill, says:

In visits for personal inspection and suggestion, I am generous in praise of the good things which I see, and criticise only when I believe my criticism will be received in the right spirit and will probably work improvement. I gave up years ago all criticism for the sake of freeing myself from responsibility. Often I refrain from direct criticism and talk to the principal of the school concerning the teacher's faults. I am reaching the conclusion that I would better always consult the principal before making criticism of any kind. The reason for this will be appreciated by every experienced superintendent.

The best method of helping teachers is, I believe, by example. The superintendent or principal should be always at his post of duty, and always within call of every teacher to assist her in any possible way. Early and late, in season and out of season, school days and holidays, it should be known that he is trying to do all that his time and strength will permit to promote the interests of the schools. He must always say "Come;" must study harder and work more hours than his teachers; must set a pace which his best teachers find it impossible to follow. Otherwise, he should resign and let some one who will do more and better work take his place.

Mr. Arthur Le Fevre, of Victoria, Tex., gives some good theoretical views regarding the work of the superintendent.

His work with teachers should be toward forming right ideals as to education, the training of enlightened, steadfast character, the developing of power, of inner freedom, of courage; to point out to teachers the futility of conning textbooks prepared for young pupils and to supply a list of books belonging to the real literature of each branch of study. If a teacher of any

subject has read in it only children's schoolbooks, an almost incredible sense of power and of widened horizon would result from the perusal of a book opening an insight into the true perspective of that field of human achievement and present effort. What has been dark or trivial and empty, would forthwith become for the teacher and pupil full of bright and stimulating interest.

He should train teachers, principals, and supervisors into a spirit of sincere co-operation. Each member of the force should be made to feel a responsibility for a high standard of accomplishment in his department, and also for the work of the whole system. Each member of the force should be free in minor details in executing the work assigned.

It should be the constant care of the superintendent to make the conditions under which the work of teaching is done as favorable as possible.

Next in importance to the supervision of the superintendent comes that of the principal. Indeed, in our larger cities, his supervision, as far as it touches the work of the individual teacher, is by far the more important. He is often in charge of more pupils than are found in the entire school population of a moderate-size town. The work of a given school in one of our cosmopolitan cities may be strikingly different from that of its neighbors. One school may be made up of Jewish children, an adjoining one of Italian, and a third, of Swedish. In one school in Chicago there are pupils representing nearly every prominent race of Europe and many of the smaller ones. Each school must adapt itself to the needs of its community. This work must have a unity and no one can unify it but the principal; his office should be magnified, his responsibility increased. The policy of instruction, whether in the regular or in the special subjects, should be his and not that of the visiting supervisor, no matter how expert she may be in her particular line. Expert assistance he, of course, needs; but as far as is possible, this should come from teachers located permanently in the school. Every school faculty should contain such expert talent. If the importance of this policy is appreciated and a consistent effort is made to bring about the result just mentioned, it will be surprising to find out how much latent talent there exists in every school corps—talent which may be wonderfully developed by careful training. This development is difficult if a teacher is placed in charge of a single room for an entire year and expected to teach all the sub-

jects in the curriculum. But even if this plan is pursued, the principal, by carefully noticing the special aptitudes of his teachers, can utilize the special skill of each to instruct the others, and thus, in a measure, give to each teacher in his school the benefit of the help of the best work of all. This policy not only will have a helpful initial influence upon the work of the school, but the effect is cumulative. Every one likes to be appreciated and if a teacher feels that her special talent is recognized, she will labor earnestly to improve herself still further in this direction. A secondary and very vital gain will result from the spirit of friendliness and mutual helpfulness developed in the school. This will be of great value. The united efforts of twenty-five people are of immensely more influence than the separate efforts of the same number.

Another, and still better way to make use of the talents of the various teachers is by means of the so-called departmental plan of instruction. This method, by relieving teachers from the necessity of preparing their work in a great variety of subjects and thus allowing them the opportunity, time, and strength for special preparation in favorite lines, tends to produce a corps of scholarly, expert teachers from one that was previously only of the ordinary grade. This policy has been pursued in many of the schools of Chicago. In one school, where the departmental method is used, the entire work in the ordinary subjects and also in singing, drawing, manual training, and domestic science is carried on by the regular grade teachers. It is surely better to work toward this end than to distract the teacher by requiring her allegiance to supervisors of separate grades, of arithmetic, drawing, sewing, construction work, physical training, etc.

The plan of making the school a unit is of equal and, perhaps, greater importance in the training it gives to the principal. When the principal is relieved of responsibility in the special subjects, he loses interest in them, and these subjects not only suffer from lack of the daily supervision which can be given only by the principal who is present at all times, but they lose by becoming isolated from the other school work. Thus results a lack of unity in the school experience of the children, which is oftentimes detrimental. In Chicago, while there are still special teachers, responsibility has of late years been placed more and more in the hands of the principal

of the school. He is made to feel that the success of the work in drawing, for example, depends as much upon his interest and skill as does the success of the work in the ordinary subjects, such as mathematics or history.

A visiting supervisor should work through the principal, advising with him rather than with the teachers direct. In no case should the supervisor issue orders to the teacher. It should be her business to point out to the principal the needs of the various teachers; to give assistance to these teachers in ways which the principal may decide. This process, while indirect, and hence slow, tends to place responsibility and hence, ultimately, to produce a high degree of efficiency.

From the admirable report of Mr. Van Sickle is quoted the following classification of teachers and statement of the duties of the supervising force in relation to each class:

(1) Superior teachers who need no stimulation other than their own ideals of excellence: By the fine standard of work which they maintain and by their student-like habits they might under favorable conditions, set the pace for the entire teaching force. At the present time, this group is a large one. With this group, supervision is chiefly concerned in gaining their co-operation in working out the problems and in bringing their influences to bear on other teachers in tactful ways.

(2) Teachers possessing a good degree of executive ability and adequate scholarship of the book-learning variety, who resist change because they honestly believe the old ways are better: They are patriotic defenders of the views and traditions and practices in which they were reared. The greater number of these will as strongly support the new when fully convinced of its advantages; but in the absence of positive orders they resist proposed changes until absolutely conclusive demonstration is furnished in a concrete way. Supervision must confidently accept these conditions and furnish demonstration.

(3) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, self-conscious and timid, because unacquainted with standards of work and valid guiding principles, desirous of avoiding observation, doing their work in a more or less perfunctory and fortuitous way: supervision needs to give these teachers courage by an exhibition of standards plainly within their reach and by personal work in their own classrooms.

(4) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, but not conscious of this lack and therefore unaware of any need of assistance:

Some form of positive direction is here necessary in the first stages of supervision.

(5) Teachers yet in the early years of their service: Supervision should be able to concern itself chiefly in keeping these teachers in class 1 so far as their personal attitude is concerned. There will, of course, always be differences among them in scholarship and personal power, but all should have guidance in kind and quantity adapted to prevent any of them, even the weakest, from developing the characteristics of class 2, class 3, or class 4. If these new recruits are to be able to lead children to be open-minded, to hold opinions tentatively, to be sure but not too sure, to be willing to give both sides of a question a hearing before reaching a final conclusion, they must keep themselves open-minded. To aid them in doing this, supervision will keep itself free from dogmatism even in dealing with the youngest teachers.

Teachers of class 1, class 2, and class 5 are willing to have their work seen and valued by competent and trusted supervisors. People who know how to do a thing, or who sincerely think they know how, or who sincerely wish to learn how, are neither afraid nor reluctant to have their work seen by any fair-minded person. Supervisors must be both skilful and fair-minded, and their work must prove that supervision means help.

II. *Voluntary Work*

The second form of work is that undertaken by the teachers themselves either individually or through organizations encouraged by school authorities. This work is very extensive. It is reported from every city from which replies have been received. This is a high tribute to the enthusiasm and devotion of teachers to their work. It takes the form of work in colleges or in normal-school classes, university extension, normal-school extension, book reviews, neighborhood clubs for the study of various subjects, and lecture associations. Providence, Rhode Island, reports that, as a result of an inquiry made some years ago, it was found that of thirty-three high-school men, twenty-three had, while teaching, taken distinct courses at various colleges and several had studied abroad; of forty-four high-school women, thirty-one had done similar work in colleges or elsewhere; eight men had received A.M.'s or Ph.D.'s. These degrees had been given for work accomplished; they were not honorary. Many certificates had been received from Harvard, Clark, and the University of Chicago for summer work; of forty-five kindergartners, forty had pursued studies along the line of their

work, while others had taken work in general culture at Brown University; of 464 grade teachers, 313 had carried on studies of various kinds. During the past winter, several hundred took the Brown University extension course; fifty-six took examinations and received credits toward degrees.

Decatur (Ill.) reported that 90 per cent. of the grade teachers attended summer schools.

One of the most interesting of these voluntary organizations is reported from Kansas City (Mo.). In 1878, Superintendent J. M. Greenwood and a few friends formed a coterie for the study of the modern philosophical systems. Ten years later the scope of topics was widened. These years had been devoted to the study of philosophical systems, literary phases of the world, and economic conditions of the different countries.

The club, now called the "Greenwood Club," is composed of such citizens as are disposed favorably toward a higher and broader education, including teachers, preachers, doctors, lawyers, and business men. The plan of work is simple. There is no formality. A president and a treasurer are the only officers. Subjects are assigned by a committee. A paper from thirty to forty minutes in length is presented by an essayist. After the paper, the subject is before the club and any one present may participate in the discussion.

The general influence of this organization upon the teaching force of the city has been remarkable. Every strong teacher who has been selected to take positions elsewhere on account of superior qualifications has been an active member of this club. The primary object had in view was to give breadth and a wider scope to the general scholarship of the teachers of the city. The topics discussed during the long series of years of the club's existence have been of the highest order and extend over practically the whole range of human interest. A few will show the character: Gaul under Roman Influence; The Rise of Modern Thought; Victor Hugo and His Contemporaries (a long series of meetings); The Early History of Kansas City; The Gospel for the Modern Day Congregation; The Club a Menace to the Home; The Standpoint of the Parent; Municipal Ownership; Recent Progress in Therapeutics.

The solid effects of such a club can scarcely be overestimated. It brings the teacher into contact with the thinking men and women

of other walks of life, and in this way she loses the narrowness and somewhat unpractical cast of thought which is a frequent consequence of long associations with immature minds.

A very valuable work reported from several cities is that of a systematic consideration by committees of principals or teachers of the various topics in the course of study or of various phases of teaching. In Chicago for several years, the principals of the schools were divided up into committees for the study of the regular subjects in the course of study. Each committee began by formulating a tentative plan of subject-matter, materials, and methods of teaching. The details of these plans, especially those portions about which there was a difference of opinion, were then taken up by each principal and discussed with his teachers and tested in actual schoolroom practice. The results of this work in the school were then reported back to the committee and a new formulation was undertaken and new phases of the work taken up. This course was systematically pursued through a long period; the outcome being a series of monographs on the topics of the course of study. These again were utilized in the formation of a tentative course of study. This course was put in practice for one year; at the end of the year reports were received from each school, and a new course formulated. This was again put in practice for a year, and a second series of reports called for. The formulation of this course of study as a result of the latter reports has just been completed though it is considered that the course is by no means fixed. The result of this continuous study into the values and methods used in the schools not only resulted in greatly improving the nature of the material and the methods but also had an extremely helpful influence upon the principals and teachers themselves.

The following very interesting lines of work are reported from St. Louis (Mo.):

First of these should be named the Society of Pedagogy, a purely voluntary organization whose annual membership reaches about fifteen hundred, of which at least twelve hundred are teachers in the St. Louis Public Schools. The section meetings assemble on the first and third Saturday mornings of each month, October to April. The society also maintains a course of lectures during the season, presenting usually eight or ten notable people each season. Some of the topics discussed are the following: pedagogy; edu-

cational psychology; current school topics; the Renaissance; physiography; French; Spanish; manual training; classics; Shakespeare; contemporary literature; United States history; primary geography; singing; physics.

The next notable opportunity presented is in the classes of the Saturday Normal College. These classes are held on the second and fourth Saturday mornings of each month, October to April, and are designed primarily for the apprentice teachers, who are required to attend. They are held in the Critique Room of the Teachers' College, which will permit an audience of about three hundred and is usually filled to its utmost capacity by the voluntary attendance of teachers whose grade work is being illustrated, these classes being always in the nature of practical illustrations.

A third and extremely important opportunity is that furnished by the extension course of the Teachers' College. It is a notable fact that these classes are always filled to their extreme limit.

Length of course: Courses will continue for twenty weeks beginning at the Teachers' College, October 8, and at the Sumner High School, October 9, and closing March, 1908.

Recitation periods: Classes in all subjects will meet once each week at 4:15 P. M. and continue in session one hour.

Regulation as to enrollment and attendance: It is requested that teachers enroll in one course only. No teacher will be allowed to enroll in more than two courses.

Owing to laboratory conditions, the class in biology, will be limited to twenty-four members. It is intended that members in all other classes, except the chorus class, shall not exceed thirty. No class will be organized with less than fifteen members, and any class will be discontinued whose number in attendance for three consecutive weeks falls below ten.

Not more than four nor less than two hours of home study each week will be necessary.

Nature of instruction: Each subject will be presented, as far as possible, from both the academical and pedagogical points of view, and the fullest opportunity will be given for the intellectual activity and growth of each individual student.

III. *Required Work*

To begin with the country teachers: In many counties they are required to attend during the summer an institute of from five to ten days of from five to seven hours each; if the work of these periods involved a series of lines of systematic work, it would be equivalent to carrying one or two courses in college through a year. In addition, they are required during the year, to read two books;

one on a professional subject and one on an academic subject. Oftentimes they are expected to make written reports upon these books or to pass examinations upon them. In a few communities, the teachers are expected to attend summer schools, of from two to four weeks each.

In quite a number of the states the certificate to teach is valid for only a short time—from six months to three years; thus making it necessary for the teacher to pass new examinations at brief intervals. In most of the cities, the candidate's first certificate is valid for one year, but is renewed at the end of the first year if the work has been satisfactory. The certificate is again renewed under the same conditions at the end of the second year and if at the end of the third year the work is still satisfactory, the certificate becomes permanent. During these years of probation, the character of the work is reported upon by the various supervisors, by the principals or superintendents who have observed the work; and, in some instances, where there are special classes for beginners, the completion of certain work in these beginners' classes is taken into account in determining the standing of the young teacher.

For the great body of teachers in cities, the required work takes the form of institutes or study classes; of these, there are a great variety. In Kansas City (Mo.) we find the following:

1. The institute: A regular monthly meeting on Saturdays, from nine to twelve o'clock, organized in three divisions: The Primary Section, the Grammar Section, and the High-School Section. It includes all principals and teachers in the public schools. The first half hour is devoted to the general meeting in charge of the superintendent. From 9:30 to 11, the institute is divided into a number of groups in each of which there is carried on a connected line of study. A few of the topics selected from recent programs indicate the character of the work. Elementary Grade Section: Primitive German Life and Character; Teaching of Spelling, Grammar, Geography, etc. High-School Section: Manual Training, Its Physiological Value, Its Industrial Value, Its Ethical Value; Sociological Problems of Kansas City; Shortcomings of the High-School English Course. At 11 o'clock, the general program is presented, the main feature of which is a formal address by some person of note.

2. The monthly consultation of principals with their teachers on the last Friday of each school month, meeting of one hour: This hour is devoted either to conferences on school management or to intensive study along some one line. In one school, the meetings each year for a series of years, were devoted to the study of some particular topic in literature, a few of which were—Talks on the Study of Literature; Freytag's *Technique of the Drama*; Horne's *Philosophy of Education*.

3. Monthly principal's meeting, from 9 to 12 on Saturdays: The final object of which is to get the best experience from all of the principals and to serve as a means for propagating in the field of education the dominant educational ideas of the world.

The high order of the work done in these meetings is indicated by topics selected from a recent program: Importance of Diplomatic History; The Janitor's Side of the Public School Work; The Scientific and Scholastic Training of the Educators in Germany is the Cause of German Industrial and Commercial Supremacy; A Comparison of the Educational Systems of France and Japan; The Elementary and Secondary Schools of England Compared with the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Missouri.

Papers on these subjects were presented by two principals at each of the meetings. Many cities report a similar series of meetings.

In addition to these, many cities report institutes, which the teachers are required to attend, held by the special teachers of physical training, of drawing, and of music. Also, grade institutes, and institutes in particular subjects as, grammar, history, etc., are held at frequent intervals, especially at the beginning of the year. In the smaller cities, these meetings are presided over by the superintendent of schools. Here all the teachers of a grade are gathered together and some topic is discussed and some work is taken up that is of common interest, or the best methods of teaching subjects of the grades in question are presented by means of model lessons given by teachers who are particularly expert.

In certain small cities, the superintendent conducts a class in professional study meeting once a week for one hour; all teachers are expected to attend this class.

One of the most interesting organizations is the Helena Kin-

kindergarten Council which has been in existence for a number of years. It is composed of the teachers of the kindergarten and of the early primary grades. It holds eight meetings a year devoted to a great variety of topics connected with the work of the grades in question. Some of these taken from different programs are as follows: The Child in Action (three meetings); The Intellectual Development of the Child; Kindergarten Out-of-Doors; The Kindergarten and the Primary Grades; The Value of the Positive rather than the Negative in Work; The Kindergarten in Many Lines (topics for an entire year).

The amount that is thus required of a teacher in a year's attendance upon these classes is quite large, certainly in most cases equivalent to two hours a week. In many cases, it is undoubtedly larger. This is not an undue requirement, and if profitably employed must result in great good to the work of the teacher.

iv. *Work Stimulated by Advance in Salary or in Rank*

The teacher, besides endeavoring to improve in directions that are pointed out to her by those with whom she works, must herself be an independent student. This is necessary in order that her intellectual horizon shall be constantly broadening and that her mind be kept pliable and in that state of efficiency designated in the field of athletics as "in training," for in no other way will she be able to grasp the problems that are constantly arising in this, the most complex of professions, and in no other way can she retain her sympathy with the learning minds over which she has care and her ability to direct these minds. Again, teaching, while it is a very conservative profession, is yet rapidly changing both as to methods and as to subject-matter. The teacher who was well equipped ten years ago is now hopelessly out of date unless she has been constantly advancing with the changes in method and in curriculum. Without regular vigorous study, the mind loses its ability to grasp the spirit of these great changes.

Miss Gertrude Edmund of Lowell, Mass., reports:

I know many teachers who are and have been pursuing professional and collegiate courses of study in connection with their regular school work, and in every case which has come under my observation these men and women have been and are today better teachers for having continued their studies.

They are sympathetic in their attitude toward the efforts of the young teachers and pupils; their minds are not decreasing in strength and mental alertness, but are open to receive new truths, and they are willing to embody these truths in practical lines of work.

The previous pages give abundant evidence that many teachers are willing to do this studying with no other motive than the love of learning and the satisfaction of being a master in one's chosen calling. This work is its own best reward, but since it is of value to the schools, it is reasonable that it should be rewarded in a tangible way, by increased salaries and by promotions. Moreover, this external motive will appeal to many who are not moved by the internal stimulus, and these are the ones who, for the good of the service, are most in need of uplifting. In endeavoring to apply this principle several cities have introduced plans which make advancement in rank or in salary depend (1) on excellence of work; (2) on presentation of evidence of some form of self-directed study.

Of the plans which give chief prominence to opportunities for promotion in rank, that of New York City is the most elaborate. This plan provides for a system of licenses which are granted partly upon record of successful service, partly upon examinations in scholarship in academic and professional subjects, and partly upon presentation of certificates showing the completion of courses in academic subjects, in colleges or universities of approved standing. The entire system will be best understood from the report of Dr. Maxwell:

"License No. 1 is granted to candidates upon passing a professional examination in the history and principles of education, and methods of teaching, an examination in academic subjects, an oral examination to enable the examiner to estimate the applicant's use of English and general personal fitness, and a physical examination. The candidate is exempted from the academic examination upon presentation of credentials showing such work as is the equivalent to the ordinary college-entrance requirements."

There are also certain requirements as to experience in teaching.

Higher licenses are granted upon work done at a grade above that required for License No. 1. They are as follows:

Promotion Licenses.—The following are the provisions of the by-laws of the Board of Education relative to a license for promotion:

A license for promotion shall qualify the holder to act as teacher in the grades of the last two years of the elementary-school course, but no person not now teaching in the last two years of the elementary-school course shall be appointed teacher of a graduating class, who, in addition to the holding of the license for promotion, has not served at least two years in other grades of the last two years of the course.

This license shall qualify the holder to act as assistant teacher in an evening high school.

To be eligible for license for promotion to any grade in the last two years of the elementary-school course, applicants must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of License No. 1.

b) Successful experience in teaching, as determined by records and reports of superintendents and principals, equivalent to three years' experience in the public schools of the city of New York, including one year's experience in the city of New York.

c) Examination in the principles and methods of teaching, or, in lieu of such examination, the completion in an approved institution of satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching; and examination in one of the following subjects or groups of subjects as prescribed in the course of study for elementary schools: English (reading, grammar, composition); mathematics (arithmetic, elementary algebra, elementary geometry); history (United States history and civics); geography and elementary science; constructive work and drawing; such other subjects or groups of subjects in the course of study as may be specified by the Board of Superintendents.

Exemption is granted from examination in the principles and methods of teaching to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption for the license is granted from examination in the required academic subjects or groups of subjects, viz., English, mathematics, history, geography, and science, constructive work and drawing, etc.

b) No exemption is granted for studies not included under "principles and methods of teaching." For purposes of exemption under this head "principles and methods of teaching" will be regarded as including science of education, history of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No course will be accepted which was not pursued in a college, university, or extension center recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Assistant to Principal.—The by-laws provide as follows:

A license as assistant to principal or head of department shall qualify the holder for the position of assistant to principal in an elementary school or of principal of an evening elementary school or of a vacation school, or to act as teacher in charge of an elementary school of the fourth order.

To be eligible for license as assistant to principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of a permanent License No. 1, and not less than eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision in the schools of the city of New York, or experience rated as equivalent thereto.

b) A license as principal in elementary schools:

Exemption is granted from examination in English, or in science, or in geography, history, and civics, to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses, which courses shall have been pursued either during the school year for at least two years, or in a university or normal summer school during at least two six-week sessions, or during one school year and one summer session, and shall have amounted to at least one hundred twenty hours, as follows: In the science of education, sixty hours; and in some branch of literature, science, or art, sixty hours.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption is granted for this license from examination in history and principles of education, methods, and school management.

b) The "science of education" will be interpreted to include any professional subjects, namely, principles of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No first-year course in foreign languages will be accepted as a satisfactory course in "literature, science, or art;" but second-year and more advanced work will be so accepted.

d) "An approved institution" is interpreted to mean any institution recognized by the Regents as a college or an extension center.

e) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

f) Two thirty-hour courses will not be counted as a sixty-hour course unless they are in closely related subjects; e. g., a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in advanced French will not

count as a sixty-hour course; but a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in literature will count as a sixty-hour course; so also will a thirty-hour course in methods (general or special) together with a thirty-hour course in school management count as a sixty-hour course.

g) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

h) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Principal.—A license as a principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder for the position of principal of an elementary school, of a truant school, of an elementary evening school, or of an evening high school, provided the licensee holds in the case last mentioned the position of principal of an elementary day school.

Notes.—A license as principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder to act as principal of an elementary school having a high-school department, provided he has also at least qualification (a) required for license as assistant teacher in a high school.

To be eligible for license as principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with at least eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision. The Master's degree in arts or sciences given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of one year of such experience. The Doctor's degree in philosophy or science, given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of two years of such experience.

b) Successful experience in teaching or supervision in graded schools for at least ten years, at least five of which must have been in public schools, together with the successful completion of university or college courses satisfactory to the Board of Examiners, such courses to be in pedagogical subjects, and to amount to not less than 120 hours.

1. No exemption for this license is granted from examination in professional subjects or in Group A (English literature, grammar and rhetoric).

2. College graduates are exempted from examination in scholarship, except in Group A.

3. Applicants not graduates of colleges, unless exempted as hereinafter provided, are required to pass, in addition to the examinations mentioned in Sec. 1, an examination in two of the following groups: Group B (logic, psychology), Group C (algebra, geometry, trigonometry), Group D (physics chemistry, physiology, and hygiene), Group E (physical and mathematical geography, United States history, civil government), Group F (a language

and its literature, namely, Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, or Anglo-Saxon).

4. Exemption in one or in two of the groups named in Sec 3 is granted to those who present a diploma or certificate obtained by examination on completion of satisfactory college or university courses.

NOTES.—(a) "College or university courses" are interpreted to mean courses pursued under the direction of a college or university and accepted as counting toward a degree.

b) Elementary, i.e., first and second year, courses in modern foreign languages will not be accepted as college courses, nor will preparatory work in ancient languages be so accepted.

c) Each course must extend over at least one year or one summer session.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) For exemption in any group, at least sixty hours' attendance must have been given to not more than two of the subjects embraced in such group; two thirty-hour courses will not be counted for exemption in any group, unless the subjects covered by such courses fall within the same group.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies required to establish the eligibility of applicants for License No. 1.

High-School Teachers.—(1) Junior Teacher: To be eligible for license as junior teacher in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with the completion of a satisfactory pedagogical course of at least one year, or, in lieu of such course, one year's satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools.

2) Assistant Teacher: To be eligible for license as assistant teacher in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and not less than three years' satisfactory experience as a teacher or as a laboratory assistant in secondary schools or in colleges. One year of satisfactory post-graduate work resulting in a degree may be accepted in lieu of one year of the required experience in teaching. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, satisfactory experience in business, not exceeding two years in duration, may be accepted in lieu of an equal period in teaching.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and two years' satisfactory post-graduate work in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license and in the science of education, and one year of satisfactory experience in teaching in colleges or in secondary schools or in the last two years of elementary

schools, which year of experience must not be concurrent with said post-graduate work. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, one year of satisfactory experience in business may be accepted in lieu of the one year of teaching.

c) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching, at least two of which shall have been in high schools or in the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and type-writing, satisfactory experience in business, not to exceed three years, may be accepted year for year in lieu of any part of the required experience in teaching.

d) Graduation upon completion of a satisfactory high-school course, or an equivalent academic education; seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching, including either two years of teaching in grades of the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools, or five years of teaching in secondary schools; and the completion of satisfactory university or college courses in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license amounting to not less than 120 hours, at least thirty of which shall have been in the science of education. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects or stenography and typewriting satisfactory experience in business may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part, not exceeding five years, of the required experience in teaching, and satisfactory commercial courses of study may be accepted in lieu of the required college courses.

e) Applicants for license to teach music, art, physical training, or any branch of manual training, may qualify under any of the preceding heads, and also under the following:

Graduation from a satisfactory high-school course, or from an institution of equal or higher rank, and two years of professional training in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license; and four years' satisfactory experience in teaching such special subject. In the case of teachers of manual training, satisfactory experience in shop practice, not to exceed two years, may be accepted in lieu of any equal period of experience in teaching.

3) First Assistant: License as first assistant in high schools may be granted in any of the following subjects: English; classical languages; modern languages; history and civics; economics; biological science; physical science, including physics, chemistry, geography, physiography; mathematics; mechanic arts; fine arts; commercial subjects.

To be eligible for license as first assistant in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory

post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges, three of which shall have been in the New York City high schools.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges. For applicants for license as first assistant in commercial subjects, experience in business satisfactory to the Board of Examiners may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part of the required college or post-graduate study.

4) Principal: To be eligible for license as principal in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and ten years' satisfactory experience in teaching or supervision, at least five of which must have been in secondary schools, in the position of superintendent or in that of examiner of the city of New York.

Dr. Maxwell reports that a very large proportion of the teaching force is constantly attending lectures in the two universities, and in other approved institutions, with a view to taking degrees and qualifying for the higher licenses in the school system.

Altogether there are fifteen varieties of certificates and each offers an opportunity for the exercise of a different sort of talent in the teacher and while each calls for written examinations in certain subjects, a large part of the credits necessary to obtain an advanced license is given for systematic study carried on through a somewhat lengthy period under teachers of the highest order. If there is any point at which the system seems to be inadequate, it is in that it offers so little encouragement to the teachers who do the work in the important years, one to six inclusive, providing the teachers prefer to remain in the work of these grades. The teachers of these grades form a very large majority of the teaching force.

There are somewhat similar grades of certificates in other school systems, though in none is the plan so fully worked out, and none, so far as reported, has adopted the admirable plan of allowing credits for studies pursued to be substituted for written examinations.

In Baltimore, besides the maximum grade salary which every good teacher may secure, there are other salaries still higher, based

on special work or duties partly executive. For example, there are at the present time, twenty positions in preparatory classes carrying a higher salary, twenty-two in special and ungraded classes, nineteen in directing practice work in the training schools, three in grade supervision, one hundred and four in vice-principalships, and twenty-three principalships. There are in all one hundred and ninety-nine of these positions carrying advanced salary in a total of about seventeen hundred elementary-school positions, or about eleven per cent. That is to say, one teacher in every nine is actually occupying a position more remunerative than the regular grade position at the maximum salary for grade work; and, sooner or later, each of the other eight may secure a like reward if, when the opportunity comes, his efficiency is such as to warrant his selection.

The second plan for encouraging teachers to do systematic study is that which reserves certain increases in salary for those who present credentials showing work done along the lines indicated in the rules of the various boards of education. The peculiar advantage of this incentive lies in its direct appeal to every teacher. This plan has been introduced in most cases quite recently and it appears in such a variety of forms that it will be necessary to present several of them in full. In general they are based upon two points, (1) success in schoolroom work and (2) the completion of certain individual lines of study. In several cases, all the details seem to the author to be of such great interest that he has been unwilling to summarize the rules, and has presented them in detail, even at the risk of being somewhat tedious.

A number of cities report plans for recognizing work done in various lines without giving details of the plans. It seems evident that the advance in salaries is adapted to the merits of each case.

Baltimore County allows an increase of \$40 per year for work in Baltimore County summer schools or for work in institutions of higher education.

Kansas City (Kan.) holds monthly meetings from 9 to 12 on Saturdays. Each group of teachers takes up a particular topic and carries it through a year. At the end of the year, examinations are held. A record is kept of all the work done by each teacher in any

educational line. Promotion in salary depends partly upon this record.

The Lincoln (Neb.) plan is as follows:

"Principals and teachers holding certificates, who have attained the maximum salary within their class, shall receive a special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the maximum salary within their class; second, that they shall have received credit for twenty hours university work in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign language, science, English. Of the twenty hours, eight hours shall be required in education; four hours in English. The credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from the pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teachers.

"Principals and teachers who have attained the first special increase, shall receive the second special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the salary resulting from the first special increase; second, that they shall be rated as highly efficient teachers, by the supervision; third, that they shall receive credit for fifteen hours of university work, or the equivalent, in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign languages, science, English. Of the fifteen hours, six hours are required in education and three in English; the credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from her pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teacher.

"The teachers in high schools are allowed two special increases of forty-five dollars per year each upon similar conditions; the work to be done being especially arranged in each case."

The twenty hours referred to in these rules is about the equivalent of one-sixth of an ordinary four-years college course.

The Cincinnati plan is as follows:

"The Cincinnati University is a civic institution of recognized standing among colleges. It takes students as they pass from high

school and gives them a four-year course. In the last two years of the college course, students may elect the training course for teachers in the department which is called the College for Teachers. The Board of Education employs the faculty for this college, spending \$10,000 a year upon it. Five instructors are employed. The university professors also give courses especially adapted to the wants of teachers in various lines. Many of these courses are placed at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, and on Saturdays. About 21 of these courses are especially designed for teachers. Last year there were 350 out of 1,000 teachers who took them. This year, each one of the faculty of the College of Teachers, and the professor of geography, are offering a series of 24 conferences with the grade teachers, each taking one grade. These conferences have been very crowded, as many as 110 teachers of a grade applying for the work. In these conferences, selected teachers state what they have done in their grade in nature work or other subjects during the past week, and the matter is then discussed by all. The object is to bring all the teaching of the schools up to the standing of the eight or ten best teachers of the grade, and to prevent stereotyped method by hearing from a variety of good teachers. The conductor works with the teacher who presents the matter so that they are in harmony in their ideas, the conductor really directing the whole trend of thought of the conference.

"From the 1,000 teachers in our schools last year, there were 1,200 professional courses taken by teachers. The year before there were 1,100.

"The incentive to do professional work lies in the provision of the rules of the Board, adopted three years ago, to make the last \$50 of the maximum salary dependent upon satisfactory teaching and professional study. Teachers must secure eight credits (not more than two a year) after they have begun teaching, in order to be eligible to the highest salary. In order to remain eligible, they must take professional courses approved by the superintendent, at least every other year; twenty-four meetings a year."

The Boston plan is as follows:

"A plan of promotional examinations has been formulated recently. According to this plan, promotional examinations are held in October and May of each year. These examinations consist of

three parts: success in the school during the preceding year; professional study and academic study in some one line. All teachers excepting principals and directors whose salary is on a sliding scale with a fixed increase for each successive year of service, must take the promotional examination next following the anniversary of the date on which they began service. Teachers successfully passing the aforesaid examination shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule on the first of January or the first of September next following the date of the examination. Teachers who fail to pass the examination shall remain on the salary of the second year of their respective schedule for another year when they shall again be examined in the same manner. If they successfully pass the examination, they shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule, and thereafter shall be advanced regularly on succeeding anniversaries until the sixth year of salary in their respective schedule is reached. Employment of teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination on two successive occasions, shall terminate after the first of September next following the date of the second examination.

"Teachers who are receiving the sixth-year salary of their respective schedule shall be examined before being placed upon the seventh year of their respective schedule. This examination consists of three parts: success in school during the preceding year; professional study; academic study in some one line. The teachers who pass this examination shall be regularly advanced on succeeding anniversaries until the maximum salary of their rank or grade is reached. Teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination or do not wish to take the examination shall remain on the sixth-year salary of their respective schedules until such time as they have passed this examination.

"Teachers who have successfully passed the two prescribed examinations shall not be required to pass additional promotional examination because of the change of rank.

"Teachers who, on entering the service, are placed on the advanced salary or who are promoted before passing both examinations, shall successfully pass the two prescribed promotional examinations before receiving the maximum salaries of their respective schedules.

"Teachers appointed to begin service prior to September, 1906, are exempt from the preceding regulations relating to promotional examinations excepting that the superintendent shall have authority to require of any teacher in the service to take a promotional examination in May of any year. Teachers failing to pass that examination must again be examined in the following May. The employment of teachers who have been so required to take the promotional examination and who have failed to pass the examination on two successive occasions shall terminate on August 31 next following the date of the second examination."

The following are details of the first of the above mentioned examinations. Those for the second examination have not as yet been formulated:

Success in teaching: Careful attention is given the year preceding examination to the quality of the teachers' work in their classrooms, but no separate or special examination is required to determine their markings in this particular.

Professional subjects, (1) for high-school teachers: first, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods used by the candidate during the preceding year in teaching any one subject that the candidate shall select; second, a written examination, one hour in length, upon one of a series of pedagogical works concerning phases of secondary education.

2) For all other teachers a similar plan is pursued, namely, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods of some subject the candidate is engaged in teaching; a written examination, one hour in length, upon some pedagogical work which deals with the line of teaching pursued by the candidate.

For purposes of the examination, the teachers are divided into teachers of grades 5 to 8; teachers of grades 1 to 4; teachers of kindergartens; teachers of special classes; teachers of manual training, sewing, cookery.

Examination in academic subjects, (1) high-school teachers: a written examination one hour in length upon any one of the following subjects not taught by the candidate during the preceding year, that he shall select: history of modern England; Dante's *Divine Comedy*; Goethe's *Faust*; history of music in the 19th cen-

tury; history of art. Certain texts are recommended in connection with each subject.

2) For teachers of grades 6 to 8, a written examination, one hour in length, upon any one of the following: American literature; English history as related to American history from 1500 A. D. to 1800 A. D.; physical geography; plane geometry.

3) For teachers of grades 1 to 5, the topics are: history of the United States; geography; mythology—age of fable.

4) For kindergarten teachers, the *Odyssey*.

5) For teachers of special classes, psychology of childhood.

6) For teachers of manual training and sewing, composition and design.

7) For teachers of cookery, chemistry applied to cookery.

In each case, suitable texts are recommended.

The Kansas City (Mo.) plan is as follows:

“With the general movement in 1903 to give our elementary teachers better salaries, the feeling was universal that they should receive for their services adequate compensation. In the corps there were teachers of all degrees of skill and attainments. Many had passed the regular examination at the first trial, while no inconsiderable number had carried old passing grades over for three or four examinations in order to secure a permanent certificate. Others, again, who had been appointed subject to examination, had received only temporary permits to teach till the next examination and seemed to stick there. Under the circumstances, to have granted a uniform flat raise in salaries, thus putting the weak and poorer class of teachers on the same footing as the best teachers on length of service only, would have been in the judgment of the Board and the superintendent, to reduce the entire teaching force to the lowest possible state of inefficiency without any recourse to recognize skilful and meritorious service. This would have been the simplest and easiest way out of the difficulty, but the effect, present and prospective, would have been the worst possible on the schools, and it would have permanently crippled, if not paralyzed, the work in every department. Prior to this agitation the experienced elementary teacher received \$65 a month for nine months’ work each year. By action of the Board for all

elementary teachers who were receiving \$65 a month, or would the next year receive that salary, a flat raise was made to \$72 a month. This increased the pay of every \$585 teacher to \$720 automatically. This was a recognition of term service, but the Board believed in a still further increase of salaries on a scholarship and meritorious service basis. The next step was to work out a system open to all who wished to avail themselves of its provisions, that would enable each teacher by his or her individual effort to receive more salary. After due consideration it was unanimously agreed to by the Board that each teacher whose salary had been advanced to \$720 should be entitled to take the first professional examination to be held in September, 1904. Two professional examinations had been decided upon. The first included: history of education, philosophy of education, school management, and English literature. The standard for passing in each of these subjects was seventy per cent. After an applicant had successfully passed the first examination and taught one year, he or she was eligible to the second professional examination, which embraced the same subjects, except that the history of western Europe had been substituted for English literature.

"A committee of four elementary-school principals, two men and two women, was appointed by the Board to conduct the professional examinations. In making out the questions for examinations they were made in groups of ten in each subject, and three distinct questions in each group, so that the applicant had thirty different questions in each group to select from, but limited so as to take one question only from each group. In the four subjects, instead of forty questions, the applicant had one hundred twenty questions to choose from.

"In September, 1904, two hundred ten teachers passed the first professional examination. Those that passed had their salaries raised to \$760; that is, two hundred ten teachers received \$175 more than they had the year previous. The second examination for this group of teachers was held June, 1905. One hundred seventy-nine passed this examination. After the second professional examination is passed, if the teacher's work is satisfactory, the salary is \$825.

"The effect of the professional examinations has been without precedent in any other city of this country, and it is destined to

have a very marked influence on the teaching force of many city systems.

"At the outset the examinations met with strenuous opposition. Presently, however, the teachers as a body began to look at the matter from other view-points. Not only would they pass the two professional examinations, but as soon as they got through with the examinations, many of them went to work earnestly to obtain a degree from the State University, and ninety are now engaged in university work through the extension department established in this city by the Board of Curators of the University of Missouri. When they began to prepare for the professional examinations so many new activities were set in motion in their minds and so many new lines of thought and broader vistas of historical and philosophical knowledge opened up to them, that they organized themselves into a compact working body, and then they began regular courses of study to perfect themselves in scholarship, knowledge, and power. This is, indeed, the very highest tribute to their energy, sane thinking, and substantial views of real progress.

"Intentionally, the maximum salary for elementary teachers was not closed at the bottom, but left open at the top. Those who go automatically to \$720 are under no compulsion to get out of that class unless they desire to do so. But few ambitious teachers, however, are willing to stop there."

Although no city reported more elaborate or a greater variety of agencies of the usual sort for the improvement of teachers, such as institutes, voluntary organizations, teachers' meetings, principals' meetings, than did Kansas City, so that the ordinary incentives toward improvement have here received a most thorough test, yet the report from that city contains the following:

"The influence that more than any other one thing has stimulated study among the teachers, is the professional examination. It came upon them much in the nature of an earthquake or a tidal wave, with the result that a new system has replaced the old. It put the city schools twenty years ahead of themselves at one step. It has produced a different attitude of mind among the majority of our teachers."

The Baltimore plan is as follows:

In rearranging the salary schedule the Board has finally been

able to provide a respectable minimum salary of \$504 per annum, which all teachers of promise reach after one successful year as regularly elected teachers. The way is then open to each for an advance to \$700 per annum in increments given annually for five years upon satisfactory evidence of efficiency and progress. The special kind of progress required for advance from \$504 to \$600 is increased skill in English. This is tested by an examination. For a year or two after leaving the City Training School no line of professional study for the young teacher will, we think, yield results as useful to the school system as study tending toward accuracy and facility in the use of the mother tongue. The examination in English for 1907 is explained in the following:²

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART I—ENGLISH

The rule for the first advance of teachers' salaries beyond \$504 (Promotional Examination, Part I) prescribes as one requirement "an impersonal test in the correct and effective use and interpretation of English." It is a well-known fact that many students secure a satisfactory general average of scholarship at graduation from the high school when their equipment and power in English are not at that time equal to a teacher's needs; yet such graduates frequently develop afterwards into very good teachers. All candidates for the first promotion in the teaching service should be able to show that since their graduation from the high school they have attained that sound judgment and refined taste in English which is the outcome of wider reading and study and greater maturity of mind than can be expected in high-school students. The examination in English, therefore, is set for the purpose of ascertaining (1) whether the teacher's own hold upon English is satisfactory; and (2) whether the teacher is in possession of some good aims and methods for the instruction of children in English composition and literature.

A teacher should be able to speak and write English with absolute correctness, and also to interpret correctly any ordinary piece of classic poetry or prose. This requirement, though, is not extensive enough; for in fact quite meager attainments suffice to make one simply correct in the use and understanding of English. Many persons speak and write in a way that is not incorrect; but their

² Taken from Supt. J. H. Van Sickle's report.

English is decidedly ineffective. Mere correctness in English is not enough to insure success in teaching.

To succeed in the classroom one's words must be effective; and effective English, does not come unsought. For the production of effective English the teacher needs all the art that can be mustered. Similarly, the teacher must be able not only to understand classic literature, but also to interpret it effectively to children; and expertness in interpretation can be secured only by systematic study.

As it is necessary for the teacher to have an effective command of English, and as it is improbable that he can gain such command without deliberate study and practice, it would seem that any candidate for promotion ought to be more than willing to show that he has pursued a course in English comprehensive enough to include a review of grammar; a good introduction into rhetoric, accompanied by sufficient practice in composition; and a careful study of a number of English classics.

Particular texts are named in order to offer to teachers who desire to make definite preparation for this examination a specific set of books to work upon. It must, however, always be remembered that no talismanic character resides in any selection of texts; others would serve quite as well.

The aim of any course in English is not primarily informational, to make one acquainted with particular pieces of literature; it is disciplinary and cultural, to create in one by the intensive study of a certain number of classics some critical insight and some literary power. Consequently the texts here selected are taken intentionally from those authors that are known to every well-read person, so that the candidate will not be burdened with the task of studying up a mass of new subject-matter; but will on the contrary need simply to make ready for some interpretative work upon classics with which he is already familiar. It is to be noted further that in no case will the memorizing of minute details be deemed sufficient to outweigh poor judgment or illogical reasoning.

The special kind of progress which we wish next to emphasize is the ability to discover problems in the work one is actually doing so that the professional growth may occur through the doing of each day's work in a professional way. Satisfactory evidence of such

progress may be submitted at any time after the advance to \$600 has been realized. It consists of an essay and discussion, a classroom demonstration, and an examination on two professional books.

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART II—STUDY OF A SPECIAL PROBLEM

It will be observed that the promotional requirement for teachers of experience is not an examination in the ordinary sense of that term. It is given not at all for the purpose of finding out how much teachers know, and not wholly to find out what they can do. It has a dynamic purpose: to direct attention to problems which press for solution, and to cultivate in teachers a tendency to deal with these problems in a thoughtful way.

All teachers after receiving a salary of \$600 for one year, provided they are competent to teach the regular subjects of their respective grades, may become eligible to receive a salary of \$700 per annum by passing the second part of the promotional examination, which is defined as follows:

The Promotional Examination, Part II, shall consist of (a) a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching or the study of a particular group of children; (b) such a defense of the report before a board of examiners, consisting of the superintendent and two other members selected by him, as will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study; and, when required, (c) a classroom demonstration before a board similarly composed.

It will be observed that the rule defines the essay as "a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching, or the study of a particular group of children." This means that the teacher is not expected to prepare an abstract or academic discussion having no relation to his own classroom problems. The essay should, on the contrary, grow out of the candidate's actual teaching; so that, instead of his being distracted from practical problems while working for the promotional examination, he shall be the more intently studying his daily work. And in case the examiners think that an essay has been written with too little reference to the candidate's actual teaching, they will feel at liberty to call for the "classroom demonstration," in which it must be shown that the candidate was not merely theorizing in his essay.

Teachers need not hesitate to attempt such essays as are con-

templated in the rule. No great display of learning is expected, but only a clear and simple presentation of everyday schoolroom experiences that have had some educational significance for the writer. To the observant teacher, who is really trying to understand the forty children committed to his care, every school day affords such experiences; and his experiences will not exactly duplicate those of any other teacher, for his children are in many particulars unlike any other children. His observations may tend to verify or contradict what he has previously read or thought; and in either case he will be led to read further in books that treat of the aspect of teaching which has attracted his interest. Out of such reading and observation and thought will come ideas well worth being committed to writing; and these when clearly and definitely stated will doubtless form an acceptable essay. Or a teacher may secure permission to apply to his class some special plan of teaching or governing, and from his day-to-day records of this plan draw up an interesting and instructive discussion. Or why should not a teacher undertake to throw light upon classroom problems by showing how one or another procedure appears from the child's point of view? Let him show, for example, how the child is affected by this or that attitude on the teacher's part, or by this or that requirement in discipline or study. This would certainly involve "the study of a particular group of children," and would therefore, if well done, fully satisfy the requirement. Hundreds of teachers have experiences just as interesting and just as worthy of permanent record as many of those which have in recent years found a ready market in the form of magazine articles. In fact, there are as many ways of satisfying the essay requirement as there are different tastes and aptitudes among teachers; and every good teacher is sure to become a better teacher by undertaking from time to time some such composition.

The essay when presented must be accompanied by an outline showing the trend of the argument and the conclusions reached, and by a list of the books consulted in making the study. From the list of books the candidate will submit for approval two, upon which will be based the discussion that "will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study." As a special caution on the use of authorities in preparing the essay, it is recom-

mended that candidates indulge but little, if at all, in quotations. Quotations often produce the effect of needless and obstructive insertions in an otherwise straightforward and coherent discussion; and they also tend frequently to make an argument appear less sincere than if the writer had set it forth in his own style. But in case a candidate considers it necessary, at a particular point, to insert a quotation, he should at least attach a foot-note citing his authority by title and page. It may be added that such slight modification of another writer's sentence as the alteration of a word or two, does not relieve one of the obligation of acknowledging the source.

As a teacher's classroom work must be entirely satisfactory when he comes up in Promotional Examination, Part II, he may get a preliminary judgment on his teaching before he undertakes his essay or at any time during its composition. Under the rules governing advance in salaries, the concurrence of the superintendent with the principal in a favorable judgment, is required.

The formal report upon the actual class work of a candidate in this examination cannot be made until the other conditions set by the rule have been met; but the candidate is of course entitled to timely information as to whether his teaching is likely to be approved under the requirements for advance to the maximum salary.

The following are a few topics of papers in Promotional Examination Part II. They are taken at random: Self Governing History Classes (by a teacher in a departmental group); The Teaching of Reading to non-English-Speaking Children; Seat Work in its Relation to the Recitation; Departmental Teaching in a Three-Teacher Group; A German Primer (MS of a book actually prepared for publication by a teacher of first grade in an English-German School; it was fully illustrated and accompanied by a chart—much superior to book in use); Everyday Difficulties in Teaching Beginners Latin; Use and Abuse of the Study Period; Foreign Travel as an Aid in Teaching Geography; The Ungraded Class; The Service of Music in the Schoolroom; Two Months of Experiment in Combining Individual, Sectional, and Class Methods of Teaching; The Argument from Experience in Introducing High-School Subjects into the Upper Grammar Grades; Group Teaching; Flexible Grading; Use of Games in Teaching French and German to Children in Seventh and Eighth Grades (the teacher invented several games).

It is difficult to imagine work that would be of more value professionally to a teacher than that of preparing during her actual teaching of a given subject such a study of that subject as these topics suggest.

When the present salary schedule was adopted, teachers of five years' experience in the Baltimore schools who had been rated as good teachers by their respective principals for the three successive years immediately preceding were declared exempt from the English examination and were at once advanced to \$600 per annum. Those not so rated by their principals, ninety-seven in number, were required to make such improvement in their work as would justify a satisfactory rating before they could receive the increase; but they were informed that they, like the others, would receive it without examination whenever they secured the required record, and that all necessary assistance would be given them. Grade supervision became absolutely necessary at this point. In no other way, except by actual attendance at a training school, could any of these teachers have received sufficient assistance. To be effective in such cases the help must be expert and individual. It must fit the case. Accordingly, expert teachers selected as grade supervisors were assigned by the superintendent to represent him in learning the special needs of this class of teachers and in helping them in every possible way. The supervisors were left entirely unhampered by any special instructions from the superintendent. Each bore a letter of introduction, but as a matter of fact, the letter was seldom presented to the teacher, a few informal words bringing about freer relations. Nevertheless it has proved invaluable in cases where the personality of the teacher visited seemed to indicate that a formal business footing would be more agreeable to her.

The supervisors sought to indicate selection of subject-matter, methods of presenting it, and methods of discipline. They worked out entire plans for the use of the teachers, following this by helping them to work out other plans and, a later step, by sending suggestions for improvement of plans which these teachers sent to them by mail. This individual work was supplemented, whenever possible by a general teachers' meeting.

The result of this plan of working individually with teachers who had failed to make good under general supervision is that

sixty-eight out of the ninety-seven have been pronounced good by the same principals who had not previously felt justified in making a favorable report.

Too much cannot be said in commendation of the way in which these teachers as a body co-operated with the supervisors in working out special problems in their individual rooms—the frank statement of their own difficulties, the good will with which they joined the supervisors in meeting these difficulties, and the hard work they put on any indicated plan. It must be distinctly understood that, while they very naturally and properly wished for the increase in salary which improved work would bring, they were not limited by this view, but endeavored to attain a higher grade of work for its own sake.

Similar work is needed annually with a large number of the newer teachers who are endeavoring to secure a record in classroom work that will make them eligible to take Promotional Examination, Part I, and with an equally large number who are anxious about the "classroom demonstration," which is a factor in Part II. These teachers wish to get assurance in advance of the examination that if they enter it, their record in classroom work will not hold them back. The grade supervision attempted thus far has been of this special nature; it has had some definite purpose to accomplish. Put upon this basis, grade supervision is a welcome help. The supervisor comes as a friend who has no other purpose than an endeavor to aid the teacher in reaching a desired goal.

The Chicago (Ill.) plan is as follows:

Teachers may be promoted to higher groups of salaries in any one of three ways: (1) by submitting evidence of the completion of the required study courses, either in the Normal Extension Department or in some degree-conferring institution, pp. 55-62; (2) by taking examinations in the study courses referred to above; (3) by taking the promotional examination. This examination, in the case of elementary teachers, consists of two papers, one in professional study, and one in some academic subject. In the case of principals, teachers in high schools, and teachers in normal practice schools, the examination consists of one paper in professional study.

Of these plans for the advancement of teachers, the one based

upon examinations is the oldest. When it was adopted it immediately caused a great demand for instructors in the various subjects in which examinations could be taken. In order to meet this demand, the Board of Education undertook a line of work which has been productive of most remarkable results, viz., that of normal extension. The plan in brief is this: The Board of Education agrees to furnish to any group of teachers of fifteen or more, in any part of the city, an instructor in any of the lines of work for which credit is given. Many of these classes meet in various halls in the central part of the city, the expenses of the rental of these halls being paid by the Board of Education. Other classes meet at the Normal School and in schoolrooms scattered throughout the city. These classes may meet at 4 o'clock in the afternoon of any school day excepting Monday, and at any hour between 9 and 12 on Saturday morning.

The first classes organized were largely institute classes of one hour each conducted chiefly on the lecture plan. It was found that the method and the length of the recitation period were not productive of the highest degree of efficiency from the standpoint of real scholarship. With the adoption of the plan for credits for work done in the normal-extension classes, the institute classes have been practically abandoned, the teachers themselves finding that they could get the work they needed more satisfactorily in the twenty-four recitations of one and one-half hours each than in the thirty-six lectures of one hour each.

The study class has certain advantages which are lacking from other forms of work undertaken for teachers, such as lectures, institutes, and grade meetings, in that the study class calls for vigorous application, serious, long-continued intellectual effort on the part of the teacher. In the lecture system of instruction, whether the lecture is a single one delivered by some great leader of thought or whether the lectures are arranged in a series as in the ordinary institute, the hearers are in a receptive attitude, while in the study class, those who undertake the work give forth to their teachers, the results of their mental activity. From the lecture, the ordinary listener carries away at best only a few suggestions and a certain amount of spiritual uplift. What one

has gained by hard study and has reproduced in oral or written form for criticism has not only become a permanent possession to the student but has also increased his mental power.

Rules of the Chicago Board of Education Relating to Promotional Examinations

CLASSIFICATION OF SALARIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

There shall be a schedule of salaries for teachers in the elementary schools, which shall include two groups of salaries:

The first group of the schedule shall provide for additional advance in salary year by year for teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the second group, and who shall have complied with the conditions named below.

ADVANCEMENT FROM SECOND TO FIRST GROUP

The conditions governing advancement from the second to the first group of salaries for elementary teachers and head assistants shall be as follows:

Elementary teachers.—Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Those teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, and whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, and who shall attain an average of eighty per cent. or above in the following tests:

a) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in the lines of professional study and training, including the subjects of school management, pedagogy, psychology, and the history of education.

b) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in any one of the following fields of academic work:

English language and literature; general history; physical science; biological science; foreign languages (Latin, Greek, German, French, Spanish); algebra and geometry; music; drawing;

manual training; household arts; geography (covering physical, mathematical, and commercial geography, with geology); physical culture (covering anatomy and physiology, theory of gymnastics, method of teaching, preparation of sets of exercises for different grades, and practical work).

The credit given to the professional examinations shall be twice that given to the academic examinations, and an average mark of eighty per cent. shall be required of all teachers passing these tests. The final mark shall be made up of three items, which shall receive equal credit, as follows:

a) Efficiency mark for the preceding year, as equalized by the Board of District Superintendents,

b) Mark obtained on the professional study paper of the promotional examination, and

c) Mark obtained on the academic paper of the promotional examination, provided that no examination mark below seventy shall be considered, and provided further that, if a candidate divides the examination, the paper taken in the preliminary part shall not be credited in the final average unless the candidate has a mark of eighty or over on such paper.

Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess an elementary principal's certificate, shall be admitted to the first group without examination. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and possess a certificate to teach in the high schools, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only.

Teachers of physical culture, teachers of manual training, and teachers of household arts in elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens and teachers of the deaf, whose mark of efficiency is eighty or above, and who have reached the maximum salary in the

second group, shall be eligible, for admission to the promotional examination provided for the regular teachers in elementary schools, and upon passing it shall be promoted to Group I, it being understood that the academic subject chosen for the promotional examination by the holder of a special certificate shall not be the same subject as that in which the special certificate was granted.

The schedules of salaries for high-school teachers and for principals of elementary schools are arranged in three groups.

High-school teachers.—High-school teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above shall be advanced to the second group after passing an examination in methods of teaching the subjects in which they give instruction. High-school teachers who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing an examination in school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education. No high-school teacher shall be eligible to the principalship of a high school who has not taken the professional examination required of candidates for the first group.

Principals.—Principals of elementary schools who have served a year at the maximum salary in the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the second group of salaries upon passing an examination in school management, and methods of instruction in primary and grammar grades. Principals who have served a year at the maximum salary in the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the first group of salaries upon passing an examination in professional work, including school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education; provided, that nothing in this schedule shall be construed as abolishing the restriction upon the salaries of principals on account of the membership of the schools, as provided elsewhere.

Teachers in normal practice schools.—The conditions governing the advancement of teachers in the practice schools from the second to the first group of salaries shall be as follows:

Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who shall have received the maximum salary of the second group for one year, and whose efficiency mark as a critic teacher shall be eighty-five per cent., or above, for the year preceding the promotional examination to which they shall be eligible for admission, and who shall obtain an average of eighty per cent., or above, in a promotional examination, which shall be based upon the work of expert critic teaching. Teachers who are transferred from any of the grades in the elementary schools to the practice schools, who have previously taken a promotional examination and are in the first group of salaries there, shall be placed in the first group of salaries for teachers in the practice schools.

Promotion of special teachers in the normal practice schools.—Salaries of special teachers of manual training, physical culture, and household arts in the normal practice schools shall be the same as the like positions in the other elementary schools and the schedule of salaries shall apply in these practice schools as in all parts of the city, except that such special teachers assigned to these practice schools shall be classed as critic teachers, and the promotion by examination from the second group to the first shall be according to the rules applying to critic teachers.

Study-Course Plan for Promotion

Teachers, head assistants, and principals who are eligible for promotion shall be allowed, if they so elect, to substitute five courses of study of not less than twenty-four lessons of one and one-half hours each, or thirty-six lessons of one hour each, for the examination requirements contained in the "Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education." Such courses of study offered for advancement to a higher group shall be pursued under the direction of the Chicago Normal School, or in some accredited institution of

learning authorized by law to confer academic degrees. Courses of study pursued in such degree-giving institutions may be accepted for credit toward advancement to a higher group, upon approval of such institutions by the principal of the Chicago Normal School and the superintendent of schools, but no courses of study shall be so accepted which are not superior in grade to the work of the Chicago public high schools. Such courses of study shall be deemed successfully completed when the proper official of the institution shall certify in writing that said course has been satisfactorily completed, and when such report has been approved by the principal of the Normal School and the superintendent of schools; provided, that if such course has been taken in a degree-giving institution, such official shall also certify that said course has been credited in said institution toward the attainment of an academic degree. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the Chicago Normal School shall have authority to take such steps as they deem necessary to satisfy themselves of the satisfactory nature and completion of these courses.

In determining the eligibility of elementary teachers for advancement to a higher group, credit shall be allowed upon the following basis, a general average of eighty per cent. being required:

Efficiency marks for the preceding school year, as given by the principal and one district superintendent, and equalized by the Board of District Superintendents, 5 credits; five courses of study successfully completed, one credit each, 5 credits; total, 10 credits.

Any teacher desiring to do so may substitute a written examination based on the work outlined in any one of the groups of subjects of study authorized under this rule for one or more of the five courses of study required, provided that the mark obtained in each of such examinations shall not be less than seventy-five per cent. in which case the teacher shall receive for said examination the credit belonging to the course of study for which it is substituted. Elementary teachers who comply with the other requirements of this rule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group of salaries.

Teachers of physical culture, household arts, and manual training in the elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens, and teachers of the deaf shall be eligible for advancement to a higher group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that any courses of study or examinations offered in subjects in which their special certificates were granted shall be of an advanced nature.

Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the third to the second group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that no course of study or examination shall be accredited to any teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school, unless said work is such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the second to the first group upon conditions similar to those required for advancement from the third to the second group, provided that the courses of study or examinations offered for advancement to the first group, including any previously offered for advancement from the third to the second group, shall be equal in amount to a year's work such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. And provided further, that after June 30, 1907, no teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school shall be eligible for advancement to the first group unless his efficiency average for the preceding school year is eighty-five or over for the year preceding that in which the examination was taken. In addition to the principal's efficiency mark each high-school teacher shall be given a mark by another supervisory officer.

The courses of study provided for in the above rule shall be elected from courses included in the following groups of subjects:

Education, including history and philosophy of education, school organization, science and art of instruction, special method, and educational ideals and classics.

Psychology, including introductory psychology, genetic and functional psychology, psychology applied to education, compara-

tive psychology, the psychology of special subjects, and the psychology of abnormal, sub-normal, and defective children.

Mathematics, solid geometry, college algebra, trigonometry, analytics, and calculus. -

Physical Science, including physics and chemistry.

Geographical Science, including physical, mathematical, political, and commercial geography, geology, and geographic drawing.

Biological Science, including zoölogy, botany, physiology, hygiene, and nature-study.

Physical Education, including applied anatomy, the physiology of exercise, and gymnastic history, theory, and practice.

Music, including both vocal and instrumental music, elementary harmony and composition, and the history of music.

English Language and Literature, including grammar, composition, rhetoric, oral reading, the study of English and American authors, and of literary types, periods, movements, and history.

Foreign Language, Latin, Greek, French, German, or Spanish, including literature, grammar, composition, and the history of the language and literature.

History, including the history of the United States, the mediaeval and modern history of European countries, and the history of the ancient world.

Political Science, including civics, economics, sociology, and industrial history.

Art, including drawing, composition and design, color, the study of masterpieces of historic and modern art, the history and philosophy of art, constructive design, and mechanical drawing.

Manual Training, including work in wood, paper, cardboard, leather, metal, textiles, weaving, basketry, clay-modeling, book-binding, applied design, constructive and mechanical design, and the history and philosophy of manual training and the science of its materials.

Sewing, including drafting and pattern-making; cutting, sewing, fitting, constructing, and repairing simple garments; also the study of textiles and fabrics; and the principles of design, proportion, and color harmony.

Cookery and Dietetics, including the structure, composition,

preparation, and serving of foods; food materials and their values and uses; dietetics; and hygienic cookery.

No course of study or examination taken in the normal extension department prior to September, 1904, or in degree-giving institutions prior to passing the last examination for promotion in Chicago, or prior to the assignment in the Chicago public schools of the teacher or principal offering it, shall be accredited under this rule, excepting that any teacher who has not yet completed the promotional examination, but who has credit for one subject in that examination, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group. A teacher or principal who has received credit under these rules for a course of study or examination shall not receive an additional credit for the completion of the same course of study or examination a second time. No teacher shall be permitted to enroll in more than two courses in any one school year, but this restriction shall not apply to courses taken in the summer term of the Normal School. At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher.

The fact that a high-school teacher is in the second group will be considered evidence that he or she has completed the requirements for promotion from Group III to Group II, namely, five courses of study of not less than thirty-six hours each.

For promotion from Group II to Group I the rule requires (including the five courses offered for promotion from Group III to Group II) one year's work of a grade which will be accepted in any approved degree-giving institution toward the degree of Master of Arts. One year's work in such institutions is usually understood to be nine courses of study aggregating about 430 hours.

Any course which is accepted by an approved degree-giving institution toward the attainment of the degree of Master of Arts will be accepted toward this promotion, whether it is technically listed in the graduate schools or in the senior colleges.

College courses aggregating a number of hours equal to the number of hours required in four courses of study of thirty-six hours each will be accepted as the equivalents of such courses.

The work offered should not, however, cover more than two general subjects.

The same ruling is held applicable to elementary principals.

One of the fundamental ideas of this promotional plan is that it tends to keep teachers in touch with modern scholarship. Because of this, attention is called to the provision to the effect that "At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher."

All regularly assigned teachers in the public, parochial, or private schools of Chicago are eligible to attend these classes. Substitutes and cadets are not eligible to enroll. Other teachers not connected regularly with any school are not eligible to attend.

Analysis of Conditions for Promotion

A. TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND HEAD ASSISTANTS

I. *Eligibility*.—A teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, separate marks to be given by the principal and a District Superintendent, and the two to be revised by the Board of District Superintendents.

II. *Promotion*.—A teacher may take either (1) an examination, her final mark to be determined as follows: (a) efficiency mark as above, one-third, (b) mark on professional study paper, one-third, (c) mark on academic paper, one-third; or (2) five study courses of twenty-four lessons (one and one-half hours each) or thirty-six lessons (one hour each), to be pursued under the direction of the normal extension department, or in some institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees; five credits to be given for the teacher's efficiency mark, as above, and five credits for the successful completion of the five courses of study; no teacher to take more than two classes a year, and at least one course to be taken within the two years preceding promotion.

III. *Study Classes*.—Teachers may take their work either (1) in Normal Extension classes in the afternoons or on Saturday mornings from October to April; or (2) in the four weeks' summer term of the Chicago Normal School, classes to be given six

days a week, in two daily periods of one and one-half hours each; or (3) in any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

B. PRINCIPALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

I. *Eligibility*.—For promotion to the second group a principal or high-school teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, and for promotion to the first group a mark of eighty-five or over.

II. *Promotion*.—A principal or high-school teacher may take either (1) an examination on professional subjects; or (2) five study courses in advanced work at any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

The extent of the work which has grown out of this plan is partly shown in the following:

REPORT OF NORMAL EXTENSION CLASSES FOR WEEK ENDING DEC. 14, 1907

Subjects Study Classes	No. Classes	Attendance	Membership	Average attend- ance per class
Education.....	4	192	226	48
Psychology.....	6	177	196	30
Mathematics.....	2	39	46	20
Science.....	8	235	292	29
Geography.....	6	132	170	22
History.....	5	88	99	18
English.....	12	279	326	23
German.....	5	156	170	31
French.....	9	212	270	24
Spanish.....	3	34	53	11
Art.....	31	844	1045	27
Music.....	11	379	458	34
Physical education.....	4	224	254	56
Manual training.....	12	311	357	27
Cookery.....	3	87	87	29
Sewing.....	15	308	492	20
Industrial art.....	40	1289	1521	32
Kindergarten.....	2	57	72	29
Total.....	177	5043	6134	28

The following table shows the number of persons enrolled in extension classes at the close of the year 1906-7:

Elementary teachers	3,228
High-school teachers	46
Principals of elementary schools.....	28
Special teachers	29

Total public-school teachers	3,331
Parochial-school teachers	21
Private-school teachers	21
Unassigned	11

53

Total enrolled	3,384
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Of the above the following number of persons are enrolled in two classes:

Elementary teachers	857
High-school teachers	9
Principals of elementary schools.....	8
Special teachers	5

Total public-school teachers.....	879
Parochial-school teachers	4
Private-school teachers	4

8

Total number of students in two classes.....	887
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Total number enrolled in Extension classes during fall term of 1907-8	7,456
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The total expenditure for this work for the year ending December 31, 1907, was \$16,032.18. This does not include cost of heat, light and janitor service in school buildings.

It will be noted from the above schedule that in the selection of studies those are most frequently chosen which have an immediate effect upon the school work. This has a good and a bad side. It shows the eagerness of the teacher to turn her work to account in improving the character of her teaching. It would be better in some ways, if her studies were partly those which took her out of her immediate lines of work, those which induced her to enter more scholarly fields of study.

In addition to the above classes many courses are being pursued

by teachers in the various colleges and art schools in or near the city.

MISCELLANEOUS

Certain other interesting phases of work are mentioned in the reports, some of which are the following:

State Inspector George B. Aiton of the Minnesota high schools recommends that the colleges and normal schools of a given state or a given section of the country arrange uniform study courses for the various grades of teachers in the country and the smaller cities and offer these courses through correspondence with the plan that these courses when satisfactorily completed shall be credited towards diplomas of graduation from normal schools or universities, or toward higher degrees.

A most important work is that undertaken by the Chicago Normal School in the publication of a bi-monthly magazine devoted to the consideration of various phases of modern educational thought. The magazine is edited by Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, principal of the Normal School. The articles are written by members of the Normal School faculty and educators of high standing from other institutions throughout the country. These articles form the basis for part of the study in the Normal School. The magazine is supplied to all of the city schools and in many of them furnishes material for the meetings of the principal with the teachers.

Teachers in the Horace Mann School, New York, and in a few of the other schools reporting may take professional courses in the near-by colleges without expense. It might be well for boards of education generally to agree to pay the tuition of teachers doing work in neighboring institutions of learning.

Several cities report the establishment of an eligible list for appointment. In Boston the appointments are made from the highest three on the list. In Chicago from the list taken in order of rank. In Chicago, in the case of experienced teachers, rank on the eligible list is determined by the average of the mark obtained in examinations with the mark obtained in substitute service. In the case of graduates of the Chicago Normal School, rank is determined by taking the average of the mark given for the two years' course in the Normal School and the mark

obtained in cadet or substitute service during the four months' probation.

In Boston, a teacher may, at the end of the seventh year of service, be given a leave of absence on half-pay for one year of study or travel. In Chicago, a teacher may obtain at any time, a year's leave (but without salary) for study, or leave for travel up to four months.

In a number of cities, the principals are required to record at certain intervals their estimate of the teachers under their charge. This has indirect influence on the work of the teachers and of the principals. It is necessary that the principal should continually study his teachers in order to help them, and the fact that he must record his estimate helps him in making his judgment. The principal is required to estimate the work of the teacher, in such points as ability to discipline, ability to teach, to co-operate with the principal and other teachers, scholarly habits, devotion to duty, etc.

Several cities report much good obtained from magazine clubs which make a study of the current educational literature.

Newark (N. J.) reports:

- . "Our Public Library is in close touch with every school in the city and supplies any needed material, prepares and classifies lists of books needed from time to time to carry out and elucidate the course of study. It also holds frequent school exhibits for the benefit of the teachers. It publishes from time to time valuable information, monographs, etc., for distribution among teachers."

TO SUMMARIZE

. The work of making good teachers must be carried forward steadily because of the immaturity of teachers on entering the profession, the unevenness of their preparation, the singular lack of external stimulus connected with the practice of the profession, the complex nature of the work that must be intrusted to even the poorest teacher, the profound injury that results when the work is badly done, the constant change in methods and curriculum.

The making of good teachers is accomplished in two ways, by instruction on the part of the supervision, by personal study on the part of the teacher. Instruction and study may be concerned with information, with methods or with principles. The instruction which

comes through sympathetic supervision which suggests correct methods but does not impose particular ones, which points to principles underlying methods, which shows the application of principles to schoolroom practice, which arouses a love for excellence in work and in scholarship will ever be the most powerful of the agencies for good.

The instruction which comes from lectures, whether by great men or small, whether in ambitious lecture courses, in university extension courses or in ordinary institutes is of doubtful value. The hearer plays simply a passive, receptive, part; he listens to a brief summary of a more or less profound study of a given subject and knowing nothing of the background of the subject, this summary makes but little permanent impression. He goes away with a pleasing sensation of having learned something and the knowledge lasts but little longer than the sensation.

This training of teachers after they enter the work is deserving of much greater consideration than it has heretofore received. Many of the reports show an attitude of hopelessness regarding the mediocre teacher. To tolerate this attitude is to acknowledge defeat. It results in a cessation of effort to help on the part of the supervision and a placid self-satisfaction that tends toward mental death on the part of the teacher.

The school should be made the unit. The principal should be made responsible for the teaching of all subjects. The departmental plan makes this possible and provides for the teacher an incentive and an opportunity for scholarly preparation. There are undeveloped talents in every corps of teachers.

The principal must be acquainted with the work of the normal school and point out to young teachers the application of the principles of teaching, otherwise much of the work of the normal school will be lost. Normal extension classes have a similar office.

After wise supervision, the great essential for a teacher's life and growth is vigorous, systematic study. It is the duty of principal and superintendent to stimulate this study in every possible way. By example, by suggestion, by promotion, by increase of salary.

Promotion and increase of salary are the rights of the conscientious scholarly teacher and the expectation of these advantages

the greatest spur to the indolent. In the demonstration of this proposition lies the chief value of the present study. The various plans for attaining this result presented herein deserve the most careful consideration.

In small communities where the homes of teachers are near together, much may be done in study classes led by the superintendent or his assistants. As the city grows, the teachers in a given school or a given neighborhood may reside far apart from one another and the difficulty of gathering them together for systematic work increases. It thus becomes more and more important that contact with the supervision should come largely in school hours and that a teacher at other times should be left free to study when and where she can do so most conveniently. The amount of this study at any time need not, ought not be great, but it should be constant, thorough and ever advancing into widening fields.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. MINUTES OF MEETING HELD AT LOS ANGELES, JULY, 1907

Monday, July 8.—This session was called for 9:30 A. M., which proved too early an hour in N. E. A. convention week. A small number held an interesting round-table discussion at Symphony Hall, 232 South Hill St.

Several names were proposed for active membership, but owing to lack of data required by the by-law governing application and nomination for membership, the names were postponed for final action at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

Wednesday, July 10.—At 2:30 P. M. about 100 people gathered at Symphony Hall, though a small proportion of these were members of the Society. The discussions were all on some phases of the relation of the kindergarten to primary education, and were interesting and excellent in character.

Those who took leading parts in the discussion were Ossian H. Lang, editor of the *New York School Journal*; Miss Isabel Lawrence, State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.; Miss Emma C. Davis, supervisor primary education, Cleveland, Ohio; and Miss Barnard, kindergartner of Oakland, Cal.

It was forcibly brought out that there is great need of the kindergartners and the primary teachers coming to a better understanding with each other regarding the work each ought to do for the child and how that work should be done so that the child may get a maximum of benefit in the primary grades from his kindergarten life and training.

II. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

This will be made at the business meeting on Wednesday, February 26.

III. THE PURPOSES, ORGANIZATION, AND WORK OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

Origin.—The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education (formerly The National Herbart Society for the Scien-

tific Study of Education) was organized at the Denver meeting of the National Educational Association in 1895. It was one of several characteristic movements in the history of education in the United States during the last decade of the nineteenth century. It was born on the one hand of a serious and deep-felt need of advancing the status of the science and art of teaching, and on the other hand of the progressive energy and earnestness of a group of the younger American educators. These leaders are well represented by the members of the first executive committee which held office from 1895 to 1899. They were Charles DeGarmo, president; Nicholas Murray Butler, John Dewey, Wilbur S. Jackman, Elmer E. Brown, Frank M. McMurry, Levi Seeley, C. C. Van Liew; and Charles A. McMurry, secretary. In 1901 the society was organized under its present name with plans and purposes somewhat modified and extended.

Purposes.—During its first stage the National Society “was organized for the aggressive discussion and spread of educational doctrines.” It desired to draw into its membership all teachers, students of education, and citizens who wish to keep abreast of the best thought and practice in education. During the second stage the original purposes have been continued, but some distinctive characteristics have been added. The present purposes may be briefly stated as follows:

1. To work toward a sound philosophic and scientific basis for educational thought and practice.
2. In connection with “1” to secure a union of the motive and spirit of both scientist and artist in all the work of the teacher.
3. To carry on study and investigation of current educational problems in a truly scientific spirit and in accordance with principles of scientific method.
4. To secure thoughtful, stimulating, and aggressive discussion of studies brought before the Society in its *Yearbook*.
5. To publish in its *Yearbook* a body of valuable literature on topics of current and permanent interest in education, and to give from time to time the status of educational opinion and practice touching some special field or problem.
6. To emphasize the idea that problems arising from one’s immediate work are usually the best starting-points for a study of education.
7. To promote the spirit and secure the advantages of co-operative fellowship in the work of education.

Membership.—Any person who will actively work for the above purposes is eligible to active membership. Active members have all the privileges and share the responsibilities of conducting the work of the Society. Active membership fee is \$3 a year. Application for active membership may be made through any active member or officer of the Society.

Any person in sympathy with the above purposes, and who desires to keep in touch with the Society's work may become an associate member by paying \$1 a year. Associate members get the *Yearbook*, circulars of information, etc., free, and have the privilege of attending meetings of the Society. Anyone wishing the publications regularly will find it a convenience and an economy to enroll as an associate member.

It is a by-law of the Society that any member wishing to discontinue membership shall so notify the secretary.

All fees and dues are payable to the secretary at the beginning of each year.

Meetings.—Two meetings are held each year; one in February at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, the other in July in connection with the annual convention of the National Education Association.

Yearbooks.—The Society's *Yearbook* is issued in two parts, Part I being sent to members a few weeks before the February meeting, and Part II shortly before the meeting in July. The *Yearbooks* are sent out in advance of the meetings to enable members to study them in preparation for discussion; thus discussion of greater effectiveness and value is assured.

The *Yearbooks* of the Society constitute a body of educational literature of acknowledged worth. The most of this literature is of permanent value to teachers. Some of it is almost indispensable to libraries and students of education. The *Yearbooks* are now bound up in sets, each covering five years, and can be had for the cost of associate membership for period covered.

Present problems.—There are several studies now before the Society:

1. Prof. Ellwood P. Cubberley's able monograph on the certification of teachers is being followed up by the work of a strong com-

mittee to promote standards and better administration of certification of teachers in the United States.

2. The work of the committee on vocational studies for college entrance will be continued. The colleges and high schools now feel the need of establishing some standards and schedules of entrance-credit valuation for the various vocational courses in secondary schools.

3. The study of the relation of kindergarten and primary education will be supplemented. The further problem is to show rather specifically what there is or ought to be in kindergarten education that the primary teacher ought to utilize in the elementary school to the child's greatest advantage.

4. The forthcoming *Yearbook* will present a study from data of wide range and careful selection concerning the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of their teachers. This study will especially show conditions and how this problem is met in cities where progressive superintendents have been seriously at work to find satisfactory solution of the problem. This *Yearbook* will be discussed at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

5. The problem of secondary industrial education in the United States will be studied and presented in an early issue of the *Yearbook*. This phase of education has come to be looked upon as a national problem, both from the international outlook regarding the commercial merits of American products, and in the light of the great importance of progressive economic efficiency in the rank and file of our population.

Prospective program.—For some time the policy of the Society has been to deal with now one, now another of the most important and pressing current educational problems. There has been a growing feeling, however, that such an organization ought to define some fundamental and comprehensive problem that would give permanence and continuity to its work for several years. Such a line of work is here briefly outlined in a series of questions and theses as a basis for discussion:

1. What ideals of life (personal and institutional) in America are or ought to be national? This will call for a profound study of American life, historical and contemporary. There are or can

be supreme, inspiring, commanding ideals of American life in whose process of realization will be embodied and sublimated the higher value and meaning of America's vast natural resources and the creative energies of her people. These must be clearly defined and continuously propagated. In the light of these ideals the meaning and value of all the details of life and education must be estimated.

2. What should be the aim and fundamental characteristics in American education in order that these ideals may be most surely realized in the highest possible degree? This will call for the discovery, defining, and systematic organization of the philosophic and scientific bases of education. From such basic principles (all of which must be derived from the nature, needs, and ideals of the people, and the relation of the individual and society) will be determined the subject-matter and all details of the entire educative process.

3. In what respects and to what extent should American education conform to national standards rather than local, and vice versa? This calls for a clear understanding of the fact that the national total is teeming with individualistic tendencies with their specialized energies, and that these factors are the mainsprings of progress and the safeguards of freedom; but it also calls for an understanding of the importance of governing factors that secure co-operative unity, coherence, and justice.

There is perennial need of getting back to fundamentals in the work of education, and the educational compass must always be corrected by reference to the life-needs of the people—their legitimate necessities, their worthiest ideals, and their more abundant life.

LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

- G. A. Axline, president State Normal School, Albion, Idaho.
 Zonia Baber, School of Education, Chicago, Ill.
 Frank P. Backman, Ohio University, Normal College, Athens, Ohio.
 William C. Bagley, State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.
 R. H. Beggs, principal Whittier School, Denver, Colo.
 Ezra W. Benedict, principal of high school, Warrensburg, N. Y.
 Francis G. Blair, superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.
 Frederick E. Bolton, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.
 Frederick G. Bonser, State Normal School, Macomb, Ill.
 Richard G. Boone, editor of *Education*, Yonkers, N. Y.
 Mary D. Bradford, Stout Training Schools, Menomonee, Wis.
 Thomas H. Briggs, Jr., State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
 Sarah C. Brooks, principal Teachers Training School, Baltimore, Md.
 Stratton D. Brooks, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.
 George A. Brown, editor *School and Home Education*, Bloomington, Ill.
 John F. Brown, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming.
 J. Stanley Brown, superintendent township high school, Joliet, Ill.
 Martin G. Brumbaugh, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
 William L. Bryan, president Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
 W. J. S. Bryan, principal Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.
 Edward F. Buchner, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
 W. H. Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Elizabeth H. Bunnell, Training School for Teachers, Prospect Place, near
 Nostrand Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.
 B. C. Caldwell, president Louisiana State Normal School, Natchitoches, La.
 Arthur D. Call, district superintendent, Hartford, Conn.
 I. I. Cammack, principal Central High School, Kansas City, Mo.
 John W. Carr, superintendent of schools, Dayton, O.
 Clarence F. Carroll, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N. Y.
 C. P. Cary, state superintendent, Madison, Wis.
 Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.
 P. P. Claxton, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.
 John W. Cook, president State Normal School, De Kalb, Ill.
 Flora J. Cooke, principal Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
 Frank W. Cooley, superintendent of schools, Evansville, Ind.
 Ellwood P. Cubberley, Leland Stanford Jr. University, Stanford University,
 Cal.
 Emma C. Davis, supervisor primary education, Cleveland, O.
 W. S. Dearmont, president State Normal School, Cape Girardeau, Mo.
 Charles DeGarmo, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
 John Dewey, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 Edwin G. Dexter, commissioner of education, San Juan, Porto Rico.
 Richard E. Dodge, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 Mary E. Doyle, State Normal School, Superior, Wis.
 Charles B. Dyke, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.

- Lida B. Earhart, 1230 Amsterdam Ave., New York, N. Y.
Gertrude Edmund, principal Lowell Training School, Lowell, Mass.
Edward C. Elliott, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
A. Caswell Ellis, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
William H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, O.
Frederick E. Farrington, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
David Felmley, president Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, manager American Book Co., Boston, Mass.
A. C. Fleshman, Kentucky State College, Lexington, Ky.
George M. Forbes, Rochester University, Rochester, N. Y.
J. M. H. Frederick, superintendent of schools, Lakewood, O.
J. M. Frost, superintendent of schools, Muskegon, Mich.
J. Montgomery Gambrill, assistant superintendent of education, Baltimore, Md.
Wilbur F. Gordy, superintendent of schools, Springfield, Mass.
Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, director Groszmann School, Plainfield, N. J.
W. H. Hailman, Chicago Normal School, Chicago, Ill.
Reuben Post Halleck, principal Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.
Cora M. Hamilton, State Normal School, Macomb, Ill.
Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Ada VanStone Harris, supervisor kindergartens and primary education, Rochester, N. Y.
L. D. Harvey, superintendent Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.
W. H. Hatch, superintendent of schools, Oak Park, Ill.
Josephine W. Heerman, principal Whittier School, Kansas City, Mo.
Hermion C. Henderson, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.
J. W. Henninger, 6433 Monroe Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Cheesman A. Herrick, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Warren E. Hicks, assistant superintendent of schools, Cleveland, O.
Patty Smith Hill, instructor kindergarten supervision, Teachers College, New York, N. Y.
Horace H. Hollister, high-school visitor, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Manfred J. Holmes, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Walter Ballou Jacobs, Brown University, Providence, R. I.
Benjamin B. James, Millikin University, Decatur, Ill.
Jeremiah W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
Lewis H. Jones, president State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
John A. H. Keith, president State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis.
Calvin N. Kendall, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.
Charles H. Keyes, supervisor of schools, Hartford, Conn.
John R. Kirk, president State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.
W. H. Kirk, superintendent of schools, East Cleveland, O.
Henry E. Kratz, superintendent of schools, Calumet, Mich.
Maria Kraus-Boelte, principal Kraus' Seminary for Kindergartners, New York City.
Ossian H. Lang, editor *School Journal*, New York, N. Y.
Isabel Lawrence, State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.
Homer P. Lewis, superintendent of schools, Worcester, Mass.
Anna E. Logan, Miami University, Oxford, O.
L. C. Lord, president State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
Charles D. Lowry, district superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

- G. W. A. Luckey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.
Herman T. Lukens, Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
E. O. Lyte, president State Normal School, Millersville, Pa.
John A. MacVannel, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Frank A. Manny, Ethical Culture School, Central Park West and 63rd St., New York, N. Y.
William H. Maxwell, superintendent of schools, New York, N. Y.
Arthur Newell McCallum, superintendent of schools, Austin, Tex.
W. J. McConathy, principal Normal School, Louisville, Ky.
C. M. McDaniel, superintendent of schools, Hammond, Ind.
Charles McKenny, president State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.
Charles A. McMurry, State Normal School, De Kalb, Ill.
Frank M. McMurry, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
I. C. McNeill, superintendent of schools, Memphis, Tenn.
Irving E. Miller, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.
G. R. Miller, State Normal College, Greeley, Colo.
William A. Millis, superintendent of schools, Crawfordsville, Ind.
J. F. Millspaugh, president State Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.
Will S. Monroe, State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.
George A. Newton, superintendent of schools, Greenville, Tex.
Theodore B. Noss, president State Normal School, California, Pa.
A. S. Olin, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.
M. V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Frank H. Palmer, editor of *Education*, Boston, Mass.
Bertha Payne, head kindergartner, School of Education, Chicago, Ill.
George D. Pickels, Louisiana State Normal School, Natchitoches, La.
Rosalie Pollock, supervisor primary education, Salt Lake City, Utah.
R. R. Reeder, superintendent New York Orphan Asylum, Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y.
J. F. Reigart, principal Public School No. 89, New York City, Yonkers, N. Y.
Emily J. Rice, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
C. R. Richards, director manual training, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
R. N. Roark, president State Normal College, Richmond, Ky.
Stuart H. Rowe, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.
James E. Russell, dean of Teachers College, New York, N. Y.
Myron T. Scudder, principal State Normal School, New Paltz, N. Y.
Homer H. Seerley, president State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Ia.
Burgess Shank, State Normal School, Valley City, S. D.
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J. N. Wilkinson, Emporia, Kan.

THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE CO-ORDINATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SUPPLEMENT TO SIXTH YEARBOOK, PART II

BY

BENJAMIN C. GREGORY,
Superintendent of Schools, Chelsea, Mass.

JENNIE B. MERRILL,
Supervisor Kindergartens, Manhattan and Bronx, New York City

BERTHA PAYNE,
Kindergarten Training Department, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

MARGARET GIDDINGS,
Supervisor of Kindergarten and Primary Schools, Denver, Colo.

THE SUBJECT OF THE YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CLEVELAND
MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, JULY 1 AND 2

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PREFACE

Part II of the *Sixth Yearbook* was devoted to an investigation of the relation between the kindergarten and the elementary school. The subject was taken up with a desire to further the effort to establish the kindergarten more firmly as a part of the public-school system by bridging the chasm which lies between it and the primary grades.

The following papers comprise the *Yearbook*: "Introduction," Ada Van Stone Harris; "The Psychologic Basis of the Kindergarten," Edwin A. Kirkpatrick; "An Interpretation of Some of the Froebelian Kindergarten Principles," Maria Kraus-Boelte; "Some Conservative and Progressive Phases of Kindergarten Education," Patty Smith Hill; "The Evolution of the Kindergarten Program," Harriette Melissa Mills; "The History of Kindergarten Influence in Elementary Education," Nina C. Vandewalker.

With the exception of the articles by Miss Harris and Miss Vandewalker the papers deal almost exclusively with the kindergarten side of the question. They do not touch the practical problem of how to co-ordinate the work of the kindergarten and the school though they prepare the way for an intelligent discussion of that question.

The present *Yearbook* attacks the problem directly and along four distinct lines. Superintendent Gregory approaches it from the side of Froebelian educational principles and maintains that the solution lies in the application of these principles in both kindergarten and school.

Miss Bender shows that the educational material used in kindergarten and primary grades and the aims to be sought have so much in common that there is no practical difficulty in the way of co-ordinating the work of kindergarten and school.

Miss Payne undertakes to show how the right training of teachers may further the work of co-ordination; and finally Miss Glidden sets forth the relation of supervision to the question at issue.

It is ardently hoped that these two *Yearbooks* which are in spirit and treatment one may contribute to the unification of child's education by helping to bring about a better understanding and closer co-ordination between the kindergarten and the elementary school.

I

WAYS AND MEANS FOR SECURING ORGANIC CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

JENNY B. MERRILL, PD.D.

Supervisor Kindergartens, Manhattan and Bronx, New York City

Some years ago in preparing the New York City exhibit for the Paris Exposition, it was decided to prepare charts summarizing the course of study in the eight elementary grades.

As the kindergarten preceded these grades in the city system, the question arose whether it was possible to summarize its procedure in such a way as to show the organic continuity between the kindergarten and the grades, or whether it was better to omit the presentation of the kindergarten from the charts.

As supervisor of our public kindergartens, I was consulted in regard to the matter. I accepted the opportunity in order to show what I had long believed to be true, namely, that an outline kindergarten course can be presented under the same general headings that are used for the first-year primary, technical kindergarten terms being suppressed.

I fully appreciated the validity of certain objections that the kindergarten world might raise to such an expression of the kindergarten, for it is certainly dangerous to use "the counters of knowledge" in reference to young children. One cannot write the play spirit which is the soul of the kindergarten into an outline course. The final result as it appeared upon the charts sent to Paris, with a few recent modifications, is as follows:

NATURE INTERESTS

1. Observation of the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky, the clouds, rain and snow, the sunset, the rainbow, shadows indoors and out-of-doors, long and short days, the seasons, etc.

2. Care of living animals, as a cat, a kitten, a rabbit. Picture books of animals used daily. Sounds of animals imitated. Observing life in the aquarium.

3. Care of the caterpillar, its cocoon, the butterfly or moth, ants, flies, spiders, bees.

4. Planting flower and vegetable seeds in springtime; fall planting; watering plants.

5. Naming plants, flowers, fruits, grains, autumn leaves, dried grasses and grains used in decoration, pictures.

6. Sorting and arranging seeds, shells and pebbles.

7. Observing nests and other homes of animals. Learning names of natural objects in the cabinet, as acorns, cones, chestnut burrs, milkweed pods, mosses, etc. (See "Language.")

NOTE.—The children handle and play with these natural objects, learning their names, colors and uses; there is no formal study of them.

8. Walks and excursions if possible.

LANGUAGE

1. Stories and conversations relating to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, the life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc.

2. Memorizing choice songs; also rhymes and jingles.

3. Attempts at reproducing simple stories.

4. Practice in distinct enunciation; a few phonic elements compared with sounds made by animals.

5. Special effort to enlarge the vocabulary by learning the names of things seen and handled in the kindergarten.

NUMBER AND FORM

1. Counting children, blocks, splints, shells, acorns, edges, corners.

2. Measuring sticks from one to five inches; measuring edges of squares and cubes.

3. Naming combinations of numbers in eight by building with the third and fourth gifts, extended in the use of the fifth and sixth gift.

4. Naming and combining halves and quarters in building and in paper-folding.

5. Suggestion of twos, threes, fours in weaving.

NOTE.—All work in number and form merely incidental.

MUSIC

1. Listening to instrumental music.

2. Singing to children.

3. Memorizing simple songs.

4. Marching to music; also recognizing and responding in movements to various rhythms.
5. Practice in sense games in recognizing notes that are alike and unlike, high and low.

HANDWORK

1. Building with blocks.
2. Modeling in sand and clay.
3. Designing and outlining with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds. (Limited.)
4. Drawing. Illustrative and object. Daily practice on the blackboard.
5. Painting. Flat washes of a single color, painting mainly natural objects having bright colors.
6. Weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats; paper mats and fringes (not less than one-half inch in width); free weaving with grasses or raffia.
7. Sewing with or without a needle. (Limited.)
8. Paper-folding. Simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles.
9. Paper-cutting and Mounting. (a) Free and illustrative; (b) Cutting to crease and line.
10. Construction of simple objects of interest to children as toys.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

1. Marching, skipping, running and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music.
2. Gymnastic exercises, imitating (a) familiar movements seen in the home and in the street; (b) movements of workmen; (c) movements of animals.
3. Finger plays.
4. Ball games, rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching.
5. Games for training the senses.
6. Games in a ring: (a) Trade games; (b) nature games; (c) social games; (d) impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs. (May be classified also under "Moral Training.")
7. Free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, dolls.

MORAL TRAINING

1. Appropriate conversations, pictures, stories and songs.
2. Punctuality and cleanliness enforced; care of room.
3. Acts of politeness and kindness encouraged and frequently suggested.
4. Instrumental music used to arouse and to quiet.

5. Care of animals and plants.
6. Observation of holidays and birthdays (especially children's and parents' birthdays).
7. Interest in the school, the flag on the school and in the kindergarten room, the streets, parks and monuments of the city, leading to simple thoughts and songs of our country.
8. Sympathy—pleasant tones of voice.
9. Consultation with parents.¹

In 1905 the Board of Superintendents adopted the following kindergarten syllabus, which presents in varied form the foregoing course with a few suggestions in method.

THE KINDERGARTEN

The following are the lines of work that should be included in kindergarten instruction:

Nature-Study.—In nature-study, the children should observe and care for animals and plant life, and should make daily observations of natural phenomena. The teacher should take the children on excursions to the parks and fields, and should encourage them to work in out-of-door gardens.

Language.—Stories and conversations in the kindergarten should relate to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc. In story telling, the stories should be illustrated with blackboard sketches, pictures, and objects. The stories should be reproduced concretely through the medium of games and adaptable material; later, as an introduction to language, the stories should be reproduced orally with great freedom of expression. A special effort should be made to enlarge the vocabulary by teaching the names of all objects seen and handled in the kindergarten. A few rhymes and jingles should be memorized.

Songs.—In music, the children should be taught to listen appreciatively to instrumental music and to singing. In singing by the children, only such songs should be selected as unite expressive melody to appropriate words, and those in which the rhythm of poetry and music coincide. The voice compass should extend from E first line to E fourth space of the staff. Only soft singing should be allowed at any time, and great care should be given to enunciation and expression. Singing during marches and physical exercise is not advisable.

Games.—In physical training, the play and games should be interpretive and expressive of everyday life. They should lead to a control of the muscles, and to mental and social development. They should include marching,

¹ See *Kindergarten Review*, June, 1905, p. 630.

skipping, running, and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music; gymnastic exercises, in which the children imitate familiar movements seen in the home and in the street, movements of workmen, and movements of animals; finger plays; ball games, as rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching; games for training the senses; games in a ring, as trade games, nature games, social games, impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs; free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, and dolls.

Handwork.—The handwork is suggested by the kindergarten "Gifts and Occupations." It includes building with blocks (Gifts II to VI); designing and outlining common objects with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds; modeling in sand and clay; drawing, both illustrative and objective, with heavy crayons; daily practice on blackboard; painting both illustrative and object; (see paragraph on "Nature-Study" and on "Stories" for suggestions of pictorial subjects in drawing, painting, and modeling); weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats and in paper mats with fringes of inch and half-inch widths; occasional free weaving with grasses or raffia; sewing with or without a needle; paper folding of simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles; paper cutting and mounting, the cutting to be free and illustrative, or restricted to the crease and line; construction of simple objects by combining paper-folding with cutting and pasting.

No occupation work should be introduced which is injurious to the eye, such as fine perforating, fine sewing, and fine weaving. The work with the gifts and occupations should be partly directed and imitative and partly inventive.

Relation to the Primary Grades.—In order to co-ordinate the kindergarten and the primary grades the kindergarten exercises should be modified toward the close of the term in preparation for promotion. There should be periods of silent work and a greater proportion of independent work in the advanced group. The close connection between the kindergarten and the first year of school work is indicated by the topics under which the kindergarten occupations are classified in this syllabus.

It will be observed that the subjects in which the continuity of work is most apparent are: "Language," "Nature-Study," "Music," "Drawing," and the "Manual Arts."

1. *Oral language.*—In oral language there is a natural progress from the kindergarten through the grades. The story and the conversation are the great features which should be common to both.

The kindergarten recognizes the child as a talking being. He is not told from the moment of his first arrival that he "must not

speak," as has been and still is, the custom in some primary schools. Oral expression is the child's right and is generally regarded in the kindergarten. The young child cannot learn to think without much talking. He must learn to inhibit speech gradually.

The child's vocabulary is constantly enriched in the kindergarten by naming every new object he uses, and by memorizing songs connected with many plays. Recently the nursery rhymes have become very popular in the kindergarten as they are also in the first year of the elementary school. The oral productions of stories and close attention to phonics belong to the primary rather than the kindergarten age. The kindergarten child, however, plays with phonics in imitating the sounds of animals.

The language of the kindergarten child is also improved by giving him an opportunity to talk about what he has made, whether it be a building with blocks, a drawing, or any other piece of hand-work. While the object is present, and immediately after the close attention required in making it has been relieved, there is a natural outburst of expression from many children, while others, it is true, say nothing. To the latter the kindergartner should turn, asking a few simple questions about the completed piece of work.

The gradually acquired ability to inhibit speech has not been sufficiently considered by the kindergartner and primary teacher. Perhaps there is no other point of discipline in which the kindergarten child more frequently annoys the primary teacher. Doubtless there should be periods in the kindergarten in which the children understand that it is better not to talk. The children learn to listen quietly to the telling of a story. They should not talk while marching, exercising, changing rooms, waiting for material, resting, or while clothing is being distributed. They may be made to feel a real interest in these quiet times. Interruptions and explosions of speech are not to be punished in the kindergarten, but with judicious management and correction on the part of the kindergartner they always grow less and less. Toward the close of the term, our little ones enjoy "playing school" as the syllabus suggests, for a few days before promotion, or trying to be more quiet like the big children.

If over-talkativeness is met by both the kindergartner and primary teacher in this spirit of mutual helpfulness, it will soon disappear.

At the same time freedom to speak out should not wholly vanish, even in the upper grades. With very young children the vigor of the thought is often lost in the effort to hold back speech, if it is not entirely forgotten before permission is given for expression. Think what our own expression would amount to if we were compelled to wait on every and all occasions for permission to speak.

The kindergarten has done more for the primary child than is sometimes realized, by enlarging the vocabulary, especially in nouns and verbs, and by securing a natural tone which can only come through freedom of speech. Pestalozzi says in *Leonard and Gertrude*, "The child must speak well before he can read well." Thus we find that reading, in a sense, is begun in the kindergarten, although no written symbols are taught.

The interest in stories, in songs, and in pictures also paves the way for interest in the book, and the kindergartner sends the child forward anxious to learn to read if she has done her work well.

2. *Nature-study*.—The nature interests of the child, as expressed in our kindergarten syllabus, are identical with those of the first-year primary. Guided observations of the returning seasons, during the first primary year, will naturally be more effective than in the kindergarten, for the primary teacher has the previous work of the kindergarten as an apperceptive background. There may be a little more system, a little more naming of parts in the primary, although in the main general observation of the life and habits of animals and plants, rather than any detailed analysis, should continue later than the kindergarten age.

As in reading a book a second time, we get from it ideas which we did not get in the first reading, so the study of the yearly cycle of seasons and holidays made in the primary year is a distinct advance beyond the work done in the kindergarten although the same nature topics are continued.

In the city kindergartens, where opportunities for observation are very limited, kindergarten children learn to recognize in pictures, if not by real contact, twenty-five or thirty animals and possibly ten or more flowers and leaf forms. Every child plants at least one seed and is encouraged to watch the results. He plays with seeds and leaves and by sorting them, becomes familiar with differences in size, shape, and color. He names many common

vegetables and fruits, and probably draws and colors them in painting lessons.

The kindergarten child further becomes acquainted with sand and shells, with clay and soil, through playful activities in modeling, and reaches the primary grades better prepared by all these experiences to listen to nature stories, having gained the power to image as he could not before the kindergarten had enriched his life.

3. *Music*.—The rote song is the common feature of interest in both kindergarten and primary. The kindergarten usually has an advantage over the primary grades in possessing a piano, and if it is well used the ability to listen to music with a little more intelligence is acquired. The ear being trained the primary teacher can secure better results. She may also criticize a little more in detail than the kindergartner and insist upon "good tone quality, distinct enunciation with well-opened mouths and mobile lips." All this will prepare the way for "simple, melodic exercises in tone relationship by imitation and dictation" in the latter half of the first year.

The rhythmic work in the kindergarten also relates itself most naturally to the musical exercises and also to the simple dance steps, now so popular in the advanced grades in connection with physical training.

4. *Drawing and the manual arts*.—For many years there was a distinct gap between the kindergarten and the primary along these lines. The geometric basis of the kindergarten was so marked in all its occupations that there could be no unity effected in schools in which an able art teacher was doing good work in the primary grades. Now that many kindergartners have rejected this geometric basis, relegating it as the art department does to a later period of development, there is a steady progress from the kindergarten to the primary in all handwork. Indeed in no other department is progressive continuity more fully experienced than between the kindergarten and the art department.

In the recently issued *Kindergarten Manual* of the City of Cincinnati, occurs the following paragraph on drawing:

Drawing is to be given five to seven minutes daily in connection with any period that may seem wise. It is under the supervision of Mr. William H. Vogel, who will from time to time outline the work with the kindergartners. In general it should be of such a nature as to afford the child the means of

giving graphic expression to the thoughts and impressions received in his daily experiences. Much work at the blackboard is desirable, and all table work should be done on a large scale.

In like manner, I have been aided for the past ten years by our supervisor of drawing, Dr. James P. Haney, in relating the kindergarten drawing to the primary. The development in drawing has in this way become continuous from kindergarten through the grades.

In the kindergarten, as in the first year, drawing and cutting are mainly illustrative and are used as a means of expression. Professor O'Shea says: "Before the child enters school he has used drawing as a means of conveying his thoughts to others, and his interest in it is determined wholly by the use to which he is thus able to put it." We are then carrying this interest in graphic expression forward from the home through the kindergarten and into the school. I often wonder why kindergartners have not been guided more fully by Froebel's commentary on "The Little Artist," which sets forth this phase of drawing in such an ideal fashion:

The things a child can make,
May crude and worthless be,
It is his impulse to create
Should gladden thee.

"Drawing," says Froebel, "attests the mind's creative power and offers a seemingly simple form for its exertion."

In the kindergarten it has been our rule, as in Cincinnati, to have drawing every day, and no occupation is more heartily enjoyed nor does any furnish a surer test of progress on the part of the kindergarten child.

Let me quote from the *Third Yearbook* of the supervisors of manual arts an article by Miss Julia Crenmins:

As a means of instruction, illustrative drawing has an educational and social value. It helps the child to think creatively instead of receptively. By it the habit of mental imagery is formed. It stimulates thought by opening an additional channel for thought. It promotes the power of connected thinking. It serves as an evidence that an image has been clearly defined before the mental eye: Such drawing creates interest in social surroundings. In illustrating personal experiences the child soon realizes how imperfect are his pictures of the things that happen daily. In an endeavor to gain clearer impressions he forms a habit of close observation.

Free cutting is an occupation closely allied to illustrative drawing. In fact we have learned by experience to introduce it by allowing the children to cut out their own drawings. This seems to give them courage to cut into the paper, and they secure satisfactory results sooner.

The occupation of folding is common to both the kindergarten and primary. It is one of the occupations which the primary has accepted from the kindergarten. The course in paper folding in kindergarten training schools has always been an extensive one and it is well that much of the work has passed on into the primary.

Constructive work in paper is also common to both the kindergarten and primary grades, and may be introduced after the children have acquired a little power in cutting, folding, and pasting. The kindergarten occupations have heretofore been limited too much to flat work. The child prefers the use of three dimensions. Constructive work in stiff paper is not difficult for children of kindergarten age. It precedes similar work in cardboard and less pliable material.

The use of building blocks and modeling in sand and in clay also meets the need of working in three dimensions. The ability to interpret pictures can be increased by artistic representations in the sand table. One of our kindergartners, Miss Rose Archer, has systematically worked out the cycle of the year in artistic scenes, following them with blackboard sketches which illustrate the same subjects. Such work in the kindergarten lays the best possible foundation for the work in elementary geography and thus tends to "organic continuity."

To represent properly such scenes, toy houses, animals, and figures (in proportion) are essential. The introduction of toys in the kindergarten is considered by some kindergartners as an innovation, but the children are often aroused to play more intelligently with kindergarten material by the addition of a few toys.

Some kindergartners are using toys to incite the children to build with a definite purpose, as, for example, a child may be given a toy animal, and the suggestion made to build a stable or barn, or other appropriate shelter. Toys have their place also in the primary class as they furnish some of its best models for object drawing and construction.

Having discarded the sequence of the gifts, many kindergartners are even blending the kindergarten materials to advantage. Thus splints and tablets may be used occasionally with blocks. For example, a stove having been built with the blocks of the fifth gift, circular tablets may be placed upon it to represent stove lids. They may also be used as toy dishes. Splints may be used for tracks, or for the span and approaches of a bridge. Seeds and colored beads may be used for vegetables and fruits, on a stand built of blocks. All the various boxes for building gifts may be combined as the child needs them.

The occupations of sewing and weaving which have been developed very fully in the primary grades are being used less and less in the kindergarten. It is true that children generally delight in these occupations, even in the kindergarten, but as the physicians are continually warning us against them on account of injury to the eyesight, we are crowding them out, and yielding them to the domestic art department.

Instead of the geometric sequence of gifts and occupations, as commonly recited in kindergarten terms, we consider all the plastic materials of the kindergarten simply as a means of expression, and believe that the children will gain knowledge of form, color, number, position, and quality incidentally through use. In this way the kindergarten is gradually allying itself to the approved methods of the primary schools, in which less and less work is required in form and number in the first school year.

5. *Games*.—The introduction of games into the primary school as a means of physical training, is one of the recent and most valuable means of securing organic continuity between the kindergarten and school. At present there is more or less interchange of games between the kindergarten and first year, but it must finally be recognized that simple plays and those avoiding competition are best suited to kindergarten children.

The kindergarten child needs to express himself through his body in dramatic play, more than do the older children, who gradually acquire a love for more formal, organized games. It is, however, also true that the dramatic instinct is also being utilized throughout the grades, although not in games, but rather in the connection with reading, history, and literature.

Group work which has become more and more popular in the school has always found its place in the kindergarten. The ages of children usually differ more widely in the kindergarten than in the well-graded class and hence the kindergarten has lent itself naturally to the grouping of children. Group work has, however, often been neglected in the kindergarten. There has been of recent years a revival of working in groups in the kindergarten as well as in the primary school. In both kindergarten and school this method should be encouraged as it helps in developing individual initiative and assists the teacher in knowing the child.

The kindergarten has always stood for a close connection with home interests. It has accomplished much by means of visitation and mothers' meetings. While it is possibly true that this work is most essential at the beginning of school life, still it is pleasing to note that the "parent-teacher associations" are extending upward through the school.

The desire to secure organic continuity between kindergarten and the school in matters of discipline must not lead to an undue forcing of the kindergarten child into school habits.

Dr. Hall warns us that "a school system which intensifies rather than shelters the young is a forcing machine and a perversion of the purpose and etymology of the word school."

When all teachers recognize that "the field of play is as wide as life and its varieties far outnumber those of industries and occupations," when, I say, all teachers subscribe to this doctrine, then kindergartners will not be obliged to guard so jealously as they have in the past, the right to play.

It is this determination of the kindergarten to play freely and fully that has most often made it clash with school discipline. But the widening of the belief in the educational value of play will tend to prevent misunderstandings in the future.

As a summary of ways and means to secure continuity between the kindergarten and school I suggest the following kindergarten creed:

A KINDERGARTEN CREED

I believe that children need each other's society for their highest development.

I believe that from four to six or seven years of age it is usually best for boys and girls to play together in groups for two or three hours daily, under adult guidance, away from their homes, in kindergartens.

I believe that play is the natural means of developing the child's body and mind.

I believe that play may be so conducted as to lead gradually into the more restricted life of the school. I also believe that the social and communal interests of the kindergarten period should extend upward into the school.

I believe that the physical care of the child demands especial attention up to the seventh year, and hence, I believe that it is a question whether young children should be called together unless they are provided with light, airy, and sunny rooms.

I believe that every possible effort should be made to keep children in touch with nature and natural objects.

I believe that simple garden work and the care of animals should be especially encouraged.

I believe that the best materials for play in the kindergarten are indicated by Froebel.

I believe that the most important of these are balls, building blocks, sand, clay, paper, crayon or brush, and scissors.

I believe that constructive play with these or other plastic materials should follow naturally a few simple industries and that such play should develop gradually into work.

I believe that informal acting or playful dramatizing should precede the formal games of the kindergarten.

I believe that pictures, stories and songs should be used freely at this age. They have long been recognized as potent in child training. If well selected they will carry the child beyond his environment and help him in forming ideals.

I believe periods for free or undirected play essential in the kindergarten, not only for the child but also for the kindergartner, to aid her in studying the children. I believe that home playthings, as the doll, the doll-house, a few simple toys, and picture books, are desirable in the kindergarten as incentives to play and to social life.

I believe that the child needs the child, and that the social life of the kindergarten is one of its most valuable features; that the communal life at this age enlarges human relationships at a time when the child needs to find his "social level," and provides a better atmosphere for moral training than the home alone can provide.

I believe that during this early period by all the means that have been mentioned, the child is gathering "experience-knowledge" of his environment and of his fellows, which will prove the best possible basis for school life and for all future development.

II

THE NECESSITY OF CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. THE PRESENT STATUS ILLOGICAL AND UNFROEBELIAN

BENJAMIN C. GREGORY

Superintendent of Schools, Chelsea, Mass.

In passing from the kindergarten to the primary school there is a break. Do what you will to soften the change, to modify the break, it still remains a break. Three general methods of dealing with the difficulty have been employed: (1) To provide a connecting class to take the child out of his kindergarten habits and introduce him to those of the primary school; in the words of some teachers, "To make him over." (2) To modify the kindergarten to make it more nearly resemble the primary school. (3) To modify the primary school to make it more nearly resemble the kindergarten. To these might be added a fourth: To do a little of each.

Now if anything is clear in the Froebelian doctrine it is this, that there are no breaks in human development and should be none in education. The human being shows wide variations when we compare him with himself at different periods of his life, but these changes always take place gradually. This is Froebel's language: "Sharp limits and definite subdivisions within the continuous series of the years of development, withdrawing from attention the permanent continuity, the living connection, the inner living essence, are therefore highly pernicious, and even destructive in their influence." And the truth is not only Froebelian, it is self-evident, it is common-sense.

It seems to the writer, therefore, that the fact of the break just noted is not only un-Froebelian, it is unpsychological, it is not common-sense. It indicates that we have abandoned the simple principles of Froebel, of psychology even, and have intruded ourselves into the problem. We have introduced an artificial consideration

somewhere or we should not have this glaring absurdity staring us in the face in our school system.

For, let us note. We are not to "make the child over;" that is precisely what we must not do. In succeeding in making the child over we do him an injury even if he were all wrong before, for Nature doesn't make things right in that way. The suspicion might arise in such cases whether it is not the teacher who needs to be made over.

And let us note further, in view of this thought of continuous development that the primary school is not to approximate the kindergarten. Who had a right to make the kindergarten a standard? It would be a standard, by the way, exceedingly hard to define in the divergent practical aspects it now presents to the educational world. And still further, it is equally illogical to speak of approximating the kindergarten to the primary school.

There is no kindergarten, there is no primary school in any such sense as the terms are understood in such a discussion. There is but one fact that is real and that is development. The artificial terms which we apply to distinguish various stages of progress in this development should not denote different things but different phases of the same thing. But the terms kindergarten and primary school imply a sharp distinction, a sharper distinction indeed, than that between the first and second grades of the primary school. This is not the only place in the school course where a sharp dividing line is drawn as a result of the use of terms, where no such line should be. A striking example is to be found in the attitude of high-school teachers toward grammar-school boys on their entrance into the high school. The friction that suddenly develops at this point and the failure of the entering students both as regards discipline and scholarship, are well-known to teachers. The explanation is simple. The student hasn't changed his identity in entering the high-school, but the high-school teacher thinks he has just because he has given him a new name.

Let us start then with this proposition, that to standardize an artificial thing as a basis of comparison with another artificial thing is unpedagogical and illogical. This postulate having been grasped, the logical course becomes very clear and simple. The standard for all education, by whatever artificial designation we describe any of

its phases, is the immutable law of child development. The kindergarten is logically but an expression of this law for one period of school life and the primary school, grammar school, high school, and college, expressions for other periods. We have claimed far too little for the Froebelian doctrine when we have timidly advocated its application to the primary school. It is not only applicable to the whole of education, it is its inexorable law. In the following discussion, no attempt, therefore, will be made to confine Froebelian thought to primary education.

Let us assume that the law of child development is conveyed with reasonable adequacy in the Froebel philosophy. This assumption is near enough to the truth—indeed it is wonderfully near the truth. What are the lessons to be derived concerning the conduct of the kindergarten and the subsequent education of the child?

Let us consider first the post-kindergarten period, the period of the so-called grades. In articles on this subject in previous *Yearbooks*, a most optimistic state of mind is evident. The influence of the kindergarten on the primary school has been taken for granted, and the spirit of the primary school has been shown to have changed for the better and along the lines of Froebelian thought. Besides this, the kindergarten material has entered the primary schools. The writer is far from entering into full participation with this optimism. One may gratefully and gladly concede that such a change in spirit is evident but must repress his transports when he begins to realize to how limited an extent the change has taken place. The superintendent who longs for the Froebel millennium must sadly admit that many a primary teacher has received but little of the divine fire, and that in the cases of many more, the new spirit is at best a modifying influence and by no means a dominating influence. In the grammar schools, the picture is darker, and in the high school, almost illegible. Again, and this is the important consideration, the influence which has brought about the happier condition is, so far as the teacher is concerned, not consciously that of the kindergarten. It may be, and to some extent, doubtless is, indirectly that of the kindergarten, but the teacher who is affected by it, doesn't know it. This is the same as to say that the vitalizing Froebelian thought which has done so much for the kindergartner has done little for the primary teacher

and that little in a roundabout way. The real thing is clearly seen when the kindergarten trained girl enters the primary or grammar school. No greater blessing has come to the schools in these later years than the entrance of the kindergarten-trained teacher into the grades. But often, even she sees but dimly the beauty of the gospel she has learned, except as it is revealed in orthodox kindergarten lines of expression. Nevertheless, the possibilities of such young women under a sympathetic training are most hopeful. They make our best primary teachers. It is a question, however, whether the introduction of the kindergarten material into the primary schools has not been productive of as much harm as good. These materials have no value in themselves. They receive a value in the kindergarten because they furnish a medium for the expression of a Froebelian thought. But to the primary teacher, they have no such value, and to the kindergartner acting as a primary teacher, they are likely to lose their meaning when divorced from their standard use. Such materials have become the occasion of a frightful waste of time, as all the materials must that are used without a comprehension of their meaning. In many cases they are relegated to the time allotted to the out-and-out idling known as "busy work."

It can never be said that the principles of Froebel are acting on the school until they act directly on the teacher. And it must further be kept in mind that the kindergarten materials and the kindergarten methods have nothing whatever to do with the matter. The methods and materials will be determined by the facts of the case. It by no means follows that because the blocks and tablets and zephyr furnish an adequate means of expressing a Froebelian principle at the sub-primary or so called kindergarten age, the same material is its adequate expression in the fourth or seventh grade. The method and the material vary, the material may even disappear, but the Froebelian principle is evermore regnant. The logical mode of procedure would seem to be: given a principle, what is the proper method or medium for its expression at this or that point in the child's progress? Let us look at some of the violations of such an obvious principle. Their grossness, importance, and frequency are startling.

One of Froebel's precepts to which we all ought to give heed is in substance, that all education should be "following," not "prescrip-

tive." It is a fair inference from this law that all methods should be based upon data afforded by the children themselves. It would seem that when children in large numbers, here, there, everywhere, resist a subject or method, that that subject or method is wrong at that stage of progress. And, conversely, when the children receive a subject or phase of a subject gladly, that that subject or phase of the subject is clearly indicated as right. Indeed, one might deduce a law regarding the appropriateness of subjects, or the time or method of their introduction, to be known as the law of the least resistance. Now what are the facts?

How long did it take us to learn that arithmetic has no place in the earlier grades? For years and years the children had said so. They resisted the subject, learned it with the greatest difficulty, and forgot it with the greatest facility; their acquirements were insignificant, and if the subject was omitted in the first grade the children were as far along at the beginning of the third grade as if the subject had been taken for two years. From a Froebelian point of view this amounts to proof, and the educational world is gradually accepting the only possible conclusion. Why were we so slow? Merely because we evolved the appropriateness of arithmetic from our heads and not from the facts of childhood. The latter is the Froebelian method, and in the Froebelian structure the principle on which it rests is basal.

Conversely, why have we been so slow in learning that little children are the best language students in the world, that early childhood is the golden time for language? And specifically, how slow we are in learning that the child's speech is oral speech and that written speech is an exotic! In oral speech the child is fluent and idiomatic, and reveals himself. In written speech he is artificial and clumsy and does not reveal himself. He comes to school with plenty of language; we put a pencil in his hand and freeze him up. The written speech will develop, but not yet, and very slowly. But we don't derive our courses of study from children but from our own self-consciousness. It would seem that to many superintendents, in preparing courses of study, it has never occurred that there are children in the world who could be seen if it were thought that that were really necessary.

What but a perverse or ignorant disregard of Froebel's law, a

disregard of the richest field of data, the children themselves, will explain the vagaries of nature-study? Anyone who will read the curricula on this subject for the last twenty years will come to the conclusion that for the most part the facts of childhood, children's loves and tendencies, were the last thing thought of. Slowly, we are tending in the right direction, but not from any consciousness that the children must determine the course of study, which is the Froebelian law. To give an example and, at the same time, be specific, the love of children for living things has been ignored or catered to accidentally in the primary and lower grammar grades, and is now very slowly receiving consideration.

And finally, for these illustrations might stretch on indefinitely, we offer an illustration of a detail which may stand for a great many details. Why do teachers try to teach the rationale of carrying in subtraction to very young children? A very little knowledge of childhood would show that the average child has not the faculties for its comprehension. He at last, indeed, arrives at a parrot-like understanding of the process and that understanding remains perfunctory. The explanation and drill thereon take many days, and the child doesn't subtract a bit better for knowing the reason. He takes the process readily but resists the explanation. This is not wonderful. Children must do many things for which an explanation is impossible. What about learning to walk, for example?

We have considered but one Froebelian law. But let anyone apply just this one law to our schools and trace the long line of violations in courses of study, in the time at which subjects are presented and the special method of presentation. One need not stop at the primary school. He may pursue his investigation through the grammar school and the high school. Indeed he will find the high school a very Golconda of false methods from the point of view under consideration. Suppose we were to open our eyes to the facts of boyhood and girlhood and humbly be guided by them, and base our teaching and courses of study upon them. A genuine revival in teaching would come to pass. Without trying to approximate the kindergarten we would be obeying Froebel. And what more can the kindergarten do?

In further illustration of this broad treatment of the elementary

school from a Froebelian point of view, let us think of another Froebelian law—that of self-activity. In the usual discussions of this law we seem to be unable to see in it anything else than manual training. But its application throughout the course of study is universal and its violations are so numerous and disastrous as to suggest the suspicion that the principle enters to the most trifling extent into school administration. An example or two must suffice.

Let the following test be applied by any teacher: Hand a set of compositions back to a class without indicating the errors and demand that the errors be not only corrected but discovered, and that the compositions be rewritten. Continue to hand back the same compositions indefinitely until all errors are discovered by the writers, and a composition, perfect in view of the state of the child's progress, is evolved. Persevere in this treatment one year. The following phenomenon will then be revealed: whereas the pupils at the beginning could not produce a perfect composition without many efforts, at the end of the year they offer the desired product as a rule with one or two efforts. The same course of treatment applied to arithmetic, algebra, German, Latin, or anything else, will reveal the same phenomenon. The pupil reaches the upper grades of the grammar school and the high school, it is claimed, weak in the technique of writing, and feeble as regards thought. In passing, why should his thought not be feeble? So much mental effort must be expended on form that he has none left for thought. If technique could ever become automatic, his whole effort could go out to the thought. But technique becomes automatic under present conditions very slowly, and never reaches any high standard, unless, indeed, it becomes automatically wrong. That is a result that can be attained with surprising rapidity.

The explanation is very simple. The self-activity of the child in the process summarized above is, at the beginning, of the most modest kind. The fact that he goes on day after day doing things that he knows are wrong, indicates how little real effort he is putting forth. But why not demand the full quota of his self-activity, as indicated above! Why shouldn't the child be feeble? Why shouldn't the results be inconsequential? The teacher assists when there should be no assistance, he explains when there should

be no explanation. He interferes with the child's right to do things himself, he meddles, and this he does all the time and in a systematic manner as if with a settled theory as to its propriety. When the malign theory is persisted in year after year, the tendency is to necrosis of the will. Some high schools make one think that this disease has actually set in.

The law holds equally good in oral language. The pupil has a right that no one shall tell him his mistakes unless he doesn't know that they are mistakes. Every time a teacher shows a child his error in anything, she violates the law of self-activity and retards his education. And the law holds good in the learning of things as well as in their practice or drill. No teacher has a right to help a boy to understand an application of percentage which he can understand without help. It is a wrong done to the boy. He is defrauded of the right to exert his own powers, through which exertion alone, in Froebel's opinion, he can be educated. It is surprising even among the very little children, the first-grade children, how much they may do for themselves. We teach them reading, of course, but if in addition to the formal teaching we give the child unlimited facilities for interesting and appropriate silent reading, put him in a bath, so to speak, of silent reading, he will soon demonstrate how unnecessary is much of our teaching and if unnecessary, then of course, how injurious. The formal teaching will go on, but it will rapidly change its character, for the children have become partners in the business. But this lesson is learned by but few teachers. The formal reading lesson appears in the upper grades as a method of teaching reading. Indeed we are for ever teaching reading. We seem never to be able to say we have taught it. The teaching of the trick of reading from the printed page should have been taught long ago. The oral reading lesson has its function in the upper grades, but that function is not to teach children how to read.

There is but one remedy for the widespread evil which we are now considering and that is the Froebelian remedy. The child must be forced back upon himself. He must have just as much help as is necessary to place him in a position to help himself and no more. This amount varies with the child, but its limit is in any case a sacred limit over which we pass at our peril. The teacher must more and more withdraw himself. He must stop meddling.

There is no educational discipline but self-discipline and in its final resolution there is no education but self-education.

The application of this idea to moral education opens up a fascinating field of thought but we can only hint at it here. Briefly, if by discipline we make it impossible to do wrong, we at the same time make choice impossible. Activity implies resistance. If there is no possibility of resistance (that is, if it is impossible to do wrong) there is no exercise, and if there is no exercise there is no growth.

Here again, the widest field for the thought is opened up. Eliminate the violations of the law of self-activity and the public schools would not know themselves. But then we would be doing only what every true kindergartner proposes to herself. The child leaves the kindergarten where self-activity is always predicated of him. He enters the grades where self-activity is, to a very large extent, an unknown quantity, and is likely to be accidental when it enters.

The limits of this article will permit but one more development of the main thought, the broader treatment of the public school from the Froebelian standpoint. We call attention to the beautiful thought of Froebel to which the keyword is the adjective "conscious." In its broader treatment it means that the child is to be made conscious of his divine possibilities. Not only must we know his power but he must know it. Unless he is conscious of his power there is no adequate education. A child can't develop what he doesn't know he possesses. But too frequently it is not power that is emphasized but failure. In the marking of a language paper, for example, is the emphasis not placed on the errors? But why not also on the successes? Which will stimulate a boy the most, to know that he can do a thing or to know that he can't? Do we like to do things we succeed in doing or those we fail in doing? Is the perpetual emphasis on error likely to make a boy so believe in himself that he will resolve to conquer all obstacles? In morals the truth shines clearly. If a child resists a dozen temptations to do wrong and fails at the thirteenth, we punish him for that failure. There's where the emphasis is placed. His successful efforts to resist temptation go for nothing. But there is where the emphasis belongs, according to Froebel. With us his failure is all that counts. Surely my duty is to make him conscious of his power

when he succeeds. He will try the harder next time. This does not eliminate punishment, but it eliminates most of the conditions which make punishment necessary. So in the curriculum. The earnest, honest effort is the important fact, for herein lies the consciousness of power; the error is the subordinate matter. The subject is a fascinating one. It is a subject which teachers have studied only in its elements. That the principle involved dominates our educational practice is far from the truth. When it does, not only will our methods of teaching be revised but our marking systems will not compare child with child, for the premium will be based on the only possible comparison, that of the child with himself. In that happy day our merit lists will not exalt one child and humiliate another, and the "*cum laude*" on the high-school commencement program will disappear with all other ingenious contrivances for emphasizing partial defeat. We will then learn that all methods which make a child believe that he can't are vicious.

One specific illustration of this great law of self-revelation, but in another field from the foregoing, must suffice for this part of the discussion. There is an interesting statement in Froebel's discussion of the teaching of language, to the effect that through reading man attains personality. The substance of the discussion is that through reading the soul is raised into self-consciousness. But who can watch a reading lesson in many a primary grade and believe that through it the child's soul is attaining self-consciousness? The monotonous expression, the apathetic looks of the children, the fitful attention and feeble interest, all indicate what is being attained: a slowly developing power to translate characters in the book into speech. But the vital fact of reading as an art whereby the child discovers himself, is practically, if not absolutely, absent. The teacher looks for it in a hopeless way or not at all. The child must discover his personality, not through words or even through the meanings of words, but through the thought of the story. Therefore the story is the principal aim of the teaching, the trick of reading the subordinate aim, for the former is the reason for desiring the latter. And there is many a teacher who would stare if she were advised to tell or read the story frequently before developing the words.

And this perfunctory treatment of reading in the earlier

grades is continued in the later grades in a most absurd manner and is paralleled in the other subjects of the course. The Froebelian idea is that the study is of value, not in itself, but in view of its reaction on the divine essence. But much of the teaching that we see places the emphasis on the subject in innocent oblivion of the existence of any such thing as a reaction. How else is the dominance of the fetish known as arithmetic to be explained? Here matters are frequently taught, not because of their reaction or even in view of their subsequent usefulness, but just because they have always been taught. For example, the teacher spends considerable time in teaching, drilling, and reviewing a subject known as "Least Common Multiple," with the full knowledge that she has never used the process in her life, except to teach it, and that the pupil never will either. It is merely a matter of tradition.

Here we are face to face with the great parting of ways. Froebel says the fundamental consideration is the child, his personality. All else is to be considered in view of its reaction on this divine entity. The opposing view holds: There are subjects to be taught. The child is a convenient thing to teach them to. You can't teach geography without children. Therefore we must have children in the schools, but the geography is the important fact and the child must accommodate himself to it. Included between these two extreme views range the teachers of the country, the mass practically adhering to the un-Froebelian view. Once more, let us search our practice. Let us bow to the Froebelian law of self-revelation. Let us make the child the starting-point for our courses of study and our methods. When we do that our schools will be revolutionized and the Froebelian thought will be incarnated in our children.

It was necessary to deal thus frankly with the post-kindergarten section of our school system. It was necessary to show that the Froebelian doctrine, not the kindergarten, was the standard. It was necessary to show, also, that the change in courses of study, in methods of teaching, and in every detail of school administration that must come (and it will come) from an honest effort to realize the Froebelian thought, is startling. But what of the kindergarten itself? Are all kindergartners really true to Froebel? Do not

some of them exalt the letter above the spirit? Froebel made two bequests. First, he bequeathed us a body of doctrine which is so true, so inspiring, so vitalizing, that it is a priceless possession. Modern psychology has modified some of this doctrine. That was to be expected and the contributions of psychology should be gratefully acknowledged. Surely, a man like Froebel, who looked at truth with such open eyes must have himself expected that this would happen. But modern psychology has also given its indorsement to most of Froebel, to all indeed that we hold dear.

Second, Froebel bequeathed us a series of directions to enable us to concrete his principles. Most of these relate to the sub-primary period of instruction, the so-called kindergarten period. A few relate to the conduct of subjects in later grades. It was to be expected that eventually two schools of kindergarten practice would develop, the one emphasizing the Froebelian principles, the other the Froebelian practice. These two schools were most felicitously portrayed by Miss Patty Hill in a previous issue of the *Yearbook*.

Is it not fair to press upon the attention of kindergartners the same mode of thinking which we have demanded in the foregoing treatment of the so-called grades from the Froebelian standpoint? When a kindergartner insists on the use of a series of gifts and occupations just because they were prescribed by Froebel, or anyone else, how does she differ from a primary teacher who persists in using methods which also have the sanction of many honored names in the past? If the kindergartner claims that she is using the material because they express the Froebelian principles, then she must in all fairness demand that we follow throughout the post-kindergarten course the methods of teaching drawing prescribed by Froebel. In the present development of art-study in the schools, this would be the *reductio ad absurdum*. Indeed from this point of view it must be admitted that the primary school has shown more openness of mind than some of the champions of the kindergarten. Are we not indeed violating the fundamental demand of Froebel himself in exalting the practice above the principle? Listen: "For the living thought, the eternal divine principle as such demands and requires free self-activity and self-determination on the part of man." Why should the self-determination be granted to the

child and be withheld from the teacher? Is not its application universal?

The fealty of the kindergartner to Froebel is beautiful, and she has fought so many fights in his behalf that every fact of the kindergarten has become dear to her. Yet the great fact remains that if all education is to fuse into one, the kindergartner must do what she expects the primary teacher to do, sit at the feet of the children and ask them what is right. They know and they only. They do not know that they know, but they know, and they will tell us if we know how to ask and are not too proud to ask. No method of embodying Froebel's thought, no matter how valuable, can stand a moment after we have discovered a better. The principle of self-activity is eternal; the third gift is a possible expression. It was Froebel's expression, but after all the important consideration is the self-activity and not the third gift. It must be expressed in a thousand ways in the primary and grammar and high-school grades. Why are not many ways possible in the kindergarten?

It seems to the writer that the truth of the postulate laid down early in this article is unavoidable: that all education is one and that breaks are illogical. If this be true, unity so far as the Froebelian doctrine is concerned must come from an absolutely honest and unflinching application of the Froebelian laws to all school life, and this means the kindergarten as well as the primary or grammar school. When that consummation is reached the kindergarten as a distinct institution will have passed away, or rather it will have absorbed within itself the whole of education. That will be the day of its transfiguration. The day is hastening. And when one thinks of the idea of the divine purpose that runs all through the Froebelian writings, surely it is not irreverent to say of that day, that "then the whole earth shall be filled with the knowledge of the Lord as the waters cover the sea."

III

HOW CAN THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNERS AND PRIMARY TEACHERS CONTRIBUTE TO ECONOMY IN EDUCATION OF CHILDREN?

BERTHA PAYNE

Head of Kindergarten Training Department, School of Education, University
of Chicago

WHAT IS ECONOMY?

Economy is here understood to mean not mere economy of time, but of energy; a conservation of all the forces of the individual, for his own development. It means, moreover, the conservation of his energies as a social factor. This educational economy means that the children are put by virtue of their school life into an efficient working relation with society. It means the pooling of native impulses and interests for social achievement. Economy concerns the teacher's energy as well. The conservation of her energies is also a necessity. The utilization of her varied capacities and especial talents, both temperamental and acquired, this too is an important educational economy.

There has been waste to the teacher and waste to the child through the disharmony of the kindergarten and the elementary school, and a tremendous waste to society in the loss, not of the school child's time, but of impulses starved that might have been fruitful, energies fritted away in petty, purposeless work, and motives lost that might have been turned into engines of power.

THE ROOT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

The disharmony between the spirit and aim of the elementary school and the spirit and aim of the kindergarten lies in the very roots of each. The school is built on the group plan, so also is the kindergarten; but the school group has always existed for convenience sake, the kindergarten group has existed from its beginning as a social necessity. The school has always kept the units in its group socially as far apart as possible. The kindergarten has con-

sciously striven to get them into the social reactions of criticisms and co-operation.

The school has chosen isolation of the individual in his work because it has feared the movement, the action, which free contact brings. It meant disturbance. The kindergarten has encouraged free contact because it has held that social habits must be formed very early.

The kindergarten has respected the native impulses and interests, the school has ignored them. The kindergarten has utilized tendencies to imitation, investigation, play, making, and art.

The school has taught not the arts of civilization, but two or three of them only, namely those which would make the learner an efficient clerk or salesman.

The kindergarten has striven to help children to discover and control their own powers; the school has striven to teach certain facts, to cover a certain amount of ground, and to give discipline in habits of industry and accuracy.

In short, the chief aim of the school has been instruction to the end of "getting on" in the world. The chief aim of the kindergarten has been development to the end of individual completeness in the social relations.

While these are the avowed theoretic differences in organization and end there can be no economic adjustment of kindergarten to school.

The kindergarten, however, has often fallen short of its principles while the school has been undergoing changes that have widened its aim.

The kindergarten has spread rapidly in this country because of its fidelity to the fundamental impulses toward play in the forms of making, building, shaping, dramatizing, and because it obeys the desire for companionship and recognition.

That it has suffered from over-emphasis on the formal side of Froebel's idea may be charged against it. It has suffered from the very condition which has given it so strong a foundation in the minds of the thinkers of the previous quarter-century, namely, the idealistic absolutism of Froebel's philosophy which has given to his teaching the authority of a gospel, and to its orthodox leaders the qualities of discipleship.

The kindergarten has suffered equally from the fact that it has been considered a dumping-ground for young women who have had too little education for other departments of teaching. It is only recently that any save a few training schools have been able to maintain a high standard.

To be fair it must be stated that, as we all know, the school is greater than its traditions both in method and aim. Great teachers there have been in all times, who have transcended the aims of instruction and discipline inherited from the early Renaissance. It remains for this generation to reconstruct educational philosophy, to bring it into harmony with our outlook upon social betterment, and to make it run with the current of mental growth, not against it.

FORCES MAKING FOR HARMONY

There are mighty forces playing upon both school and kindergarten bringing them nearer together. These forces are the spirit of scientific method, the genetic study of mental life, the moral awakening expressed in the sensitiveness to good and evil in social conditions, the effort toward social progress, the breaking of the bonds of authoritative ecclesiasticism, and the growing realization of a broader, freer religious belief. Away beneath and beyond both school and kindergarten in the tendencies of society and in the research of men of science, the enlightening processes are at work that will make for the future, not two radically different things—a kindergarten and a school—but a continuous educational organization. Then the question of the economic training of kindergartners and elementary teachers will solve itself.

Even now we have sporadic cases of the kind of school in which this unification is possible.

Psychology has shown us some of the defects of kindergarten method, while it has, in the main, reinforced its theoretic basis. Psychology enjoins upon the school just that procedure which makes it truly continuous with the kindergarten. It has shown us that, as Froebel said of the education of boys: "Lessons through and in work are by far the most profitable." It has shown us that the school cannot prepare for life by dealing with the formalities of reading and writing the abstractions of number and the dead facts of history and geography.

Psychology has shown us the force of suggestion and imitation. It has made plain the fact that imitation and suggestion are fruitful in the social play of little children, that the kindergarten was altogether right in its fostering of these plays that a child might gain in this early stage whatever of social training he could absorb from representing the various phases of social activity. It has shown us that the relation which the child of kindergarten age seeks blindly in his play is still sought continuously and ever more consciously by the child of school age. Psychology has shown us that it is through concrete experiences that stimulus to thinking comes and enforces thereby a continuance of that contact with things and events with the phenomena of nature and the processes found in industry and trade which the kindergarten child is given.

Sociology gives us the same picture of primitive man evolving a civilization and a higher type of mind by the continuous meeting and solving of the concrete problems enforced by the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. It shows us the child at play at hunting, fishing, tent-making, and fire-building, and later sharing in the industries of home and tribe. We civilized folk have in our greater wisdom divorced the child from any active interests in his home and industries and have driven him from fear of untoward consequences to school where his normal tastes for tent-building, cave-digging, camping, meet a check. We have snubbed his interest in real work and forced him to hours, weeks, and years of imprisonment at tasks which have to him no remote bearing upon the important pursuits of life. Just at the age when he might be learning the strength of co-operation in work we set him solitary at a desk to furrow his brow over abstractions, formulations, and dreary drill of the schools.

From the modern axiom "All consciousness is motor," we are learning to build the curriculum of the elementary schools on overt activities. The kindergartner and primary teacher have gained therein another point of contact.

SCHOOLS THAT ARE EXTENSIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN IDEA

I can think, at this moment, of nine noted schools, not including the famous one at Tuskegee, in which the work is absolutely continuous with that of the kindergarten, and is carrying into effect its

vital principles; if not avowedly, still implicitly. Not that all of them have kindergartens, some of them being boarding-schools located in the country.

To go into one of these schools gives one the same impression of joyousness and lively interest that one finds in a kindergarten. Here a group of children have returned with sketches from nature from which they are to select one to be used as the *motif* for the decoration of a bare wall in their eighth-grade room. It is to be enlarged to a scale for which measurements have been taken and calculations have been made. Another group has planned a garden, measured and platted it, and the children are just going out to lay it off. A third has been carrying on a series of experiments in fire-making. A fourth is in the cooking-room preparing a luncheon to which the children of a neighboring room have been invited. That luncheon seems merely a tea party to the casual observer, but it is the climax of some weeks of cooking in which they have learned the reaction of heat on starches, the rising properties of beaten egg, of soda and acids, and the main facts of absorption and evaporation in fruits. They have experimented, written recipes, measured quantities, learned the values of halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths, reduced and expanded recipes in mathematical proportions to serve fewer or more people. In short it has furnished motive for much systematic work in science, reading, writing, and number. Here a group of seventh-grade children are in the library reading—another are working over a sand table illustrating the transporting and deposition of silt. Another are calculating the amount of wheat grown in Minnesota and the number of people it will supply with bread, this following on a visit to the grain elevators.

All will soon assemble to hear a French play given by the fifth grade. This is life. The school is treated as if it were a little village or a big family. Real activities are engaged in. The initiative of the individual is encouraged. Situations are brought about which arouse the desire to work, to make, to invent. Natural avenues of interest are exploited, each group works together upon problems commensurate with the power and interests of its members. The groups come together in general assembly daily, and there contribute whatever of interest each may have to offer as the result of the common work or investigation. They are kept in close touch with the processes

of nature through the changing year. The supreme emphasis is placed by the teachers upon the development of controlling interests, the enlistment of sincere purpose. Some of the typical activities are gardening, wood-working, pottery, and modeling, cooking, weaving, dyeing, sewing, book binding, and printing. Formal studies are pursued under the necessities forced upon the children by the demands felt in their more concrete work for writing, reading, and number. Drill grows out of the plainly felt need for smoothness, ease, and quickness. The social good is the corrective of behavior and furnishes the stimulus for concrete achievement. Critical review of their own work gives them the impetus to further endeavor and study. Failure is the starting-point for persistent effort. The discipline of life comes to these children as it comes to adults, enforced by the great measure of desire which goes into the work they undertake.

There are play-times, festivals, the field-day with games and sports, excursions to the lake shore and the woods, at which young and old play together. The keynote of its discipline is the solution of problems. The habit developed ought to be the power to seize upon a situation, find a point of interest, analyze its factors, and to deal with them intelligently. This school needs no *connecting* "class" with its kindergarten. It connects. Such a school makes the laboratory for the normal student. She may study the technique of the kindergarten, or of the primary grades, or of the so-called grammar grades. She may devote herself to science teaching or the teaching of handicrafts, or of music, or of physical culture, but first, and before all, she must become imbued with the fundamental doctrines of education as they are being demonstrated before her eyes.

I have magnified the elementary school out of all proportion to the rest of this paper because it seems to me to be the basis and foundation of all experience. It furnishes the point of contact.

FUNCTION OF PRACTICE

In all school training we have three main factors, each with its especial function: the departments of instruction in arts and sciences, the department of philosophy and education, and the laboratory of education furnished by the practice school. These

organs of the school are equally and vitally important. It would be crippled if any one of them were weak, and yet in the practice school the center of the whole is found. It is in the practice school that theories are put to the test, it is here that knowledge and experience with children are gained. Here should be aroused that zeal for the work of teaching which carries the teacher over difficulties, and doubts.

Every instructor in the departments relies on the elementary school of course as a means of demonstrating what he means when he deals with values of his subjects with its presentation, and its significance to the children. But does every instructor make clear to his students the delicacy of the problem of dealing with children? Does he make his students appreciate that each one of them may be responsible for the opening of the children's minds to ideas, or for the closing of their minds forever to certain aspects when badly presented? Does he inspire them with the desire to teach? Does he put practice-teaching in the light of a great privilege, as an artistic and delicate piece of work?

It rests largely with the teachers of science, history, literature, art, number, and every other subject that touches great ramifying human interests, to see to it that, however deeply he may immerse his students in his own subject, the enthusiasm for it is carried over into teaching. To this end no departmental instructor can afford to hold aloof from psychology. He must know children as well as he knows his subject, and he must know life, and feel the relation of his particular subject to social problems. The focus of his knowledge must sooner or later rest upon the school. Nor can application of subject-matter to school be secured by lecture or educational method and device. The application is for the student to work out. She must find the points of meaning, her first problem, and her plan of presenting them, which is her second.

FUNCTION OF STUDENT TEACHER IN PRACTICE SCHOOL

The practice school can mean nothing in shaping the professional character of the future teacher if she is merely an observer of its activities. It will count for little in an ethical and emotional sense if the prospective teacher goes into it merely to test and try experiments as she would go into a laboratory. Laboratory the

elementary school and kindergarten must be, but never chiefly nor solely laboratory. The student must be enlisted sympathetically and intellectually in the active pursuits of the children. The problem for the normal school is here; the raw, untrained, crude student with vague theories must somehow enter the schoolroom door filled with a wholesome consciousness of her function in that room, with something to do for and with the children that she herself is really interested in.

Much knowledge the normal school cannot give its students within the limits of a two-years' course. Their educational theory must of necessity be comparatively untried and therefore somewhat unassimilated, but some things the normal school can do. Its students can go out with a view down an alluring perspective of study and a zeal for work with children. They cannot be full of knowledge on every subject that they may need to teach in the elementary school. They may, however, have been taught how to study, the meaning of study, and be filled with a strong motive for work and a view of teaching that enforces respect and sincerity. To this end the practice school exists.

How to achieve this in detail is the problem. I believe that much practice teaching is scrappy. The students prepare an isolated lesson, enter, relieve themselves of their mental load, and depart. The short visit may serve for purposes of the instructor who wishes to have his class see an illustrative lesson, given either by a trained teacher or by a class member for analysis and instruction, but there must be something more than this. The children cannot be known, in this fragmentary view. A longer stay for a period of weeks gives the student an opportunity to get into a normal social relation with the children, to see them reacting to varied subjects, in various conditions, to see them when they are fresh in mind and when they are fatigued. There are numerous ways in which the student teacher can get into a normal relation with the children of any grade, class, or group, before her teaching begins. She can assist in handicrafts, seat-work, accompany them on excursions, and take part in plays and games. Then when her own time for teaching comes, she is one of them and not that anomaly, a "practice-teacher."

The kindergarten student has had an advantage in this respect

in the usual separate kindergarten training-school, where it has been customary to send her to a large kindergarten in which she has been responsible for a group. This has developed early in her period of training a sense of responsibility and the keen interest which accompanies actual work. Its tendency is to resourcefulness and ease. On the other hand, there has been a great loss of power, a great waste due to the weakness of her supervision and the uncritical attitude that she bears to her own work, for as the head kindergartner is usually busy herself, and is often untrained in analysis and criticism, she cannot help the student to get the principles lying beneath her successes and failures. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon two points, for both the students who are working in the primary grades, and those in the kindergartens:

First, time for real acquaintance, not mere "knowledge about" the children as they react to the varied influences that play upon them; time to know differences in individual character and temperament; opportunity to enter sincerely and sympathetically into their activities; freedom to initiate, carry out, and revise her own plans.

Second, definite help in reviewing her own teaching with the head teacher, to discover her weak points, that she may be helped to realize some of the fundamentals that go into artistic teaching.

Good teaching in kindergarten and primary school involves something vastly more than giving lessons with logical method. It means that undefinable influence exerted by the tactful, intuitive, and sympathetic person. Froebel called it "nurture." Perhaps this quality can never be taught or trained into any student, but it can be very successfully choked. It involves sensitiveness to the mental and emotional differences in different children, readiness to supply the unspoken needs read in expression and gesture, or guessed from eloquent but subtle indications.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CANDIDATES

We are often distressed at the youth of candidates for the kindergarten normal class, but we do not always make the best of their youthfulness. The training teachers, full of the deeper insights of philosophy of education despair of imparting to them their point of view and richness of expression. Of course the ideal

condition would be that in which plenty of cultivated, tactful persons of good taste would appear at the doors of our normal schools to demand entrance to the kindergarten training class; but, taking conditions as we often find them, we must not forget that the girls have something quite as essential, namely, a warmth of emotional life, the lively interest of the youthful mind in the very things that the kindergarten children are interested in.

For several years I have asked my incoming classes to write for me their reasons for choosing the kindergarten as a field for work. The answers are not tabulated, but there is a typical one: "I have always liked little children and love to be with them and have looked forward all through high school to teaching in the kindergarten." If we were only wise enough instead of being discouraged at the lack of knowledge and insight displayed in this reply, we should utilize this womanly impulse which is blindly trying to get scope and an object on which to expend itself. There must be a way of securing to her a growth in wisdom, in discrimination, and purpose to do something more than amuse and enjoy her charges. This then is one of the great problems that confronts the kindergarten normal teacher. We may raise the standard, require junior college work or full college work for entrance to the kindergarten normal; the chances are that we will then in many cases lose either the student or the fresh vigor of her impulses. It is the familiar question of "nascent periods" which we are facing. Here is a great desire, it is on the *crescendo*. Shall we catch it and train it while it is growing or let it alone until the college girl segregated from family life and contact with young children has lost something of the vitality and starved this impulse which may never blossom as freshly? If she teaches later it will be from an aroused interest in subject-matter and she is most likely to choose grammar-grade or high-school work as offering most scope. Still, later, she may return to the desire to teach little children, from an intellectual interest in psychology or child-study, aroused in her college work.

I do not think this an easy question to settle. There are many poor kindergartners made from this material, but I question whether if they had been initiated more artistically into the psychology and philosophy of the kindergarten many of them might not have developed a broader and deeper view of the work they

are trying to do. I believe an excursion into the socially organized elementary school would be most helpful to these students. I believe also that to confront them with the formalities of the subtle intuitions of Froebel at the beginning of their student life is a mistake; that a simple philosophy of education developed from their own experience first and a sympathetic kind of child-psychology or child-study makes a better introduction and point of departure. With such studies as Dr. Hall's *Story of a Sand-Pile*, and *Contents of Children's Minds*, Barnes's *Studies in Education*, and Sully's *Studies of Childhood*, one can seize the sympathetic and imaginative side of their interest and prepare it for the more thoughtful and philosophic student attitude. This is not an argument for preference of the immature over the mature candidate, but an attempt to point out the compensations and possibilities of training such students. When the candidate does retain her sympathy and elasticity, the more mature mind is infinitely to be preferred.

UNIFYING THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNER AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

That the kindergartner and the elementary teacher should be trained under such conditions that each may become an integral factor in a *whole* school from the baby group in the kindergarten to the high school seems to be a foregone conclusion. We need the skill that comes from a certain specialization but we must face the danger of isolation in seeking specialized training. The training of the kindergartner has been over-specialized. It has, to be sure, been broad in the sense that she has taught the fundamental formulations of a large educational philosophy. It has been fatally narrow in that she has had much contact with the little child's mental type to the exclusion of the older type, with its developed interests. It has been restricted to such subject-matter as may be presented to the very young child.

The intensive, narrow training gives long "schools of work," tremendous amount of detail in occupations, and a very great deal of uncritical practice-teaching in the kindergarten. This might well be in part displaced by a longer perspective in the literature, the nature-study, or appropriate science, and the art of both kinder-

garten and elementary school. In this study stress may well be laid on the adaptation of any given subject-matter or experience to successive stages of growth. This adaptation will be greatly facilitated by observation of definite work in kindergarten and grades, to watch the children's interest, or reaction. It will be further given a basis by the student's work in psychology and child-study which can be in the main the same for both kindergarten and elementary training students.

All students who are preparing for work in the kindergarten and primary grades need a thorough training in the elements of handicraft, and acquaintance with the simpler principles of constructions, and with the possibilities of wood, textiles, leather, cardboard, and clay. They need training in the principles underlying graphic art, such training as will give them some feeling for proportion, color combinations, and harmony. The ability to draw, model, paint, build, sing, and dance may not be developed in every student, but all must at least realize the function of these modes of expression, and be trained well in one or some of them.

By finding the native fitness of each student for some line of artistic expression and cultivating it, teachers may be sent out who can give to the schools in which they teach a power which will touch more than the single room or group.

Young children attend, image, and think best with the end of some definite achievement in view; this self-realization is the law of their mental growth. Therefore teachers of young children must not only appreciate this psychologic fact, but must themselves be made skilful and resourceful in carrying out the aims and interests appropriate to these stages in art forms. The training for the kindergartner and primary teacher would naturally then include a very similar emphasis on the fundamental art principles as found in painting, modeling, and designing. The variation would come in the problem of adaptation to the powers and interests of children at various stages.

Not only in art-forms does this law hold good, the science and nature-study of the school is subject to this law of expression. A child's acquaintance, contact, or experience with the forms and processes of nature naturally leads to the desire to control, or hold the controlling forces more completely. Therefore again experi-

ment, investigation, and discovery both lead to and wait on making and doing.

Child-study and genetic psychology are again needed to illumine the true course of the rise and growth of the scientific attitude. When the teachers of nature-study, natural history, and experimental science can look through the subject to the apprehending mind, and out of the specialized subject to its bearing on life, we shall have the ideal science teacher for both kindergartner and elementary teacher. Children have the power of observing and drawing conclusions, and further of applying these conclusions to the interpretation of new cases. The continuity of this scientific attitude is unbroken. Why then should his life from kindergarten through school be broken into horizontal sections, fitting one set of people to deal with one section and one solely with a later?

The beginning courses in natural science in the normal school may well include kindergarten students. Later courses can furnish a wider and deeper knowledge for those who are to give special attention to the science in the upper grades, but *all* should first have work together which will give an outlook on the field and functions of natural history and experimental science. This would do away with the sentimentality of kindergarten "nature-work." A supplementary kindergartner's course should deal with the adaptation of material to little children, in which the students would psychologize the material, and further learn the practical and necessary modes of dealing with gardening, window gardening, care of pets, simple cooking, and the selection and management of excursions for little children.

Both kindergarten and elementary teachers need the same outlook on literature and to a certain extent history. They need to know the meaning of the story in education, the qualities of good stories for children, the sources from which they may be drawn, the adaptation and telling of stories. It is on this last point that differentiation may begin, and yet the line cannot be closely drawn, in the selection and telling of stories for kindergarten and later ages.

Both kindergartners and primary teachers need a view of what is sometimes called the history of social occupations. It furnishes the clue and background to our common social needs and relations, and while interpreting the civilization of today reveals its continuity

with the past. This great factor in general culture also shows the meaning of social occupations as educative means for children. It links the building, making, and social imitation plays of the children with the constructive occupations of the school and with its dramatic interpretations of social life. It offers to the children of the elementary school opportunities for discovery and invention, in solving some of the problems that have confronted the race in satisfying the needs for food, clothing, and shelter.

The point of view gained in such a course as this seems to be after a thorough test one of the most unifying and cultural in the whole range for *all* teachers of children.

It would certainly seem as if the teacher of mathematics should have something to offer the kindergarten student if it is only the warning that she must not yield to the temptation of being over-mathematical in her use of Froebel's mathematically constructed gifts. This warning comes forcibly from the person who sees the whole of the child's growth in control of number. He can well assist the kindergarten student to find what is psychologically appropriate to the kindergarten stage.

With the present emphasis on games, sports, and dancing as complementary to formal gymnastics it is certain that both classes of students can unite economically in most of the gymnastic work. While the elementary students go into the older forms of athletics, the kindergarten and primary students should spend more time in the acquisition of a repertoire of children's games: ball games, folk games, ring games, and representation plays.

In child-study and psychology there is—let us be thankful for it—one great unifying and solving force. Here all students are at one in the effort to interpret mental function, and the order of mental growth. Probably the latest courses taken by the kindergarten under this head should deal with specialization in the study of the play-period of growth.

Throughout this discursive and very insufficient discussion of my subject, I have tried to show the modes of study that would lead to unity in fundamentals and variety in particular adjustments. The problem of teaching the younger children enforces an adaptation of subject-matter and method to the more infantile grasp and scope. Out of the wider field then the student must select, adjust,

and organize. This offers her a great opportunity for discrimination and study of children. The weakest thing in our customary training of kindergartners is the giving of too much predigested food, and the browsing on fenced in fields where they may find arranged *only* what is suitable to the child under six years of age. Unity! unity! we cry; then let us put the kindergartner and primary teacher together wherever possible, and it is possible, whenever fundamentals are being dealt with, either in subject-matter, methods, or psychology. Specialization then will be the later flower, the finer adaptation of means to end. Selection and organization and teaching art furnish the kindergartner's special training.

IV

THE RELATIVE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF HAVING ONE SUPERVISOR OF KINDERGARTENS AND PRIMARY WORK IN THE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

MARGARET GIDDINGS

Supervisor of Kindergarten and Primary Schools, Denver, Colorado

There are many reasons for the kindergarten's isolation from the public-school system. Most of these are the outcome of ignorance on the part of both kindergartners and school people as to the meaning or value of their respective departments of education. This ignorance is largely due to the misunderstandings which arise from the establishment of any new system.

As time will remove these misunderstandings, they may be passed over while consideration is given to the fundamental cause of the existing gap between the kindergarten and the primary school.

This cause embraces more than the difference in methods or in phraseology between the two, since it deals directly with the ideals which have shaped the course of each. Kindergartens were introduced into this country while the schools were steeped in the formalism of academic education, and for years they stood for an ideal which was opposed in spirit and practice to every tradition of the educational scheme. Naturally they were not looked upon with favor by the educators of that day. Kindergartens were either condemned as harmful or impractical, or else they were looked upon as being good in themselves, but as something entirely foreign to the school as a whole. As long as this attitude existed, there could be no real effort made to combine the two, although there have always been spasmodic local attempts to bring about their union. Usually these attempts have aimed to so change the kindergarten practice that it might be more consistent with the primary-school methods. However, school ideals have been changing, and

while kindergartens have been spreading and growing in numbers and strength, the school system itself has been undergoing a revolution, until now in theory, at least, the two may be said to accept as their basis the same fundamental principles of education. Since this is so, why is there a gap between the kindergarten and the elementary school? In theory there is none; in practice, however, it does exist in the majority of city-school systems, a real menace to the kindergarten, and a cause for much discussion among school men.

We have had much advice. Kindergartners, teachers, superintendents, and even college men, have bent their efforts to secure the desired unity. This advice has been of immense value. It has caused a much-needed awakening in the ranks of the kindergartners, and is probably largely responsible for the revolt against the traditional kindergarten methods, which has led many to the modification of kindergarten practice along the lines of modern child-study and educational philosophy. It has also established a better understanding between the kindergarten and elementary school, and best of all, has brought about a real desire for a closer co-operation.

A careful survey of the subject, therefore, would indicate that since a common view point has been reached that the next step is to make a practical adjustment which shall wisely reconstruct methods on both sides to the end of establishing a connected scheme for education as a whole.

Many of us believe that this will come more quickly, and more intelligently through a closer supervision of both kindergartens and primary grades—a supervision which shall include under one head the direct oversight and management of the kindergartens and at least the first three grades of the elementary school. It is the object of this paper, therefore, to set forth for discussion some of the advantages and disadvantages of such an arrangement.

ADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN

The recognition accorded to the kindergarten by this combination would in itself do much to place it upon a firmer basis than it has heretofore occupied. To place it in the position of one of the grades of a school, instead of a separate department, would imme-

diately insure for it a public recognition which would go far toward bridging the gap between it and the first grade. As part of the primary school, there would at once arise the desire on both sides for a closer union. A desire which should stimulate a closer study of the aims and function of each, and which would furnish that real incentive for necessary adjustment and mutual modifications.

This broadening of the educational horizon of the kindergartners should break down any tendency toward that exclusiveness with which they have been charged, since it would force upon them the conception of the whole scheme of education, and would therefore help them to see the kindergarten in a truer relation to the school in general.

Such a supervision could also, without harm to the kindergarten, practically modify many of its methods to fit the requirements of the succeeding grades. Some of these modifications may be considered under the following heads:

1. *A better selection of subject-matter for the kindergarten program.*—This should provide that those interests, both in nature and human nature which are fundamental to man, should form the basis for the program, and further that these interests should be considered in the light of the child's environment and his stage of development. This would give a more logical foundation for the primary course of study than would a program built on Froebel's *Mother-Play* or one which considered only the temporary and fleeting interests of the five-year-old child.

2. *A more systematic attempt to simplify kindergarten handwork, games, and stories.*—Much of the handwork or so-called occupation work of the kindergarten is too complicated in execution and finish for the four- and five-year-old children. All kindergarten work should be so simple and crude that the children would be able to construct it without so much personal supervision as is now given. Primary teachers complain, and justly so, that kindergartners can procure from their children results which they cannot secure from those who are two or three years older. It would be, therefore, of immense help in establishing handwork in the primary school if a supervisor could suggest occupations which would allow for much independent work in the kindergarten, and thereby prepare the children to execute without much help most of the

constructive work planned for the first grade. Most primary teachers have too many pupils to allow them to give the time for personally supervised handwork; therefore, they leave it out entirely, or substitute so-called busy-work, which often provides only a means of activity without taking into account educational values.

There should also be provided a better selection of games for the kindergarten; a selection which should recognize the racial instincts of the child, and which should be better suited to his physical needs.

Stories, too, need modifying along these same lines. Many of the kindergarten stories now used are too long and complicated as to plot and interests.

3. *Consideration as to the use of tools.*—Many of the same tools used in the kindergarten are also employed in the grades, such as pencils, scissors, and paint brushes. Provisions should be made whereby kindergarten children shall be given the correct method of holding, and using these tools, thus forestalling the possibility of primary teachers having to break up bad habits before they can install good ones.

These points may be said to deal with the kindergarten curriculum, if such a term may be applied to the work of such tiny children. There are, however, many adjustments on the administrative side which may be made by a supervisor to the great benefit of the kindergartens and the school.

She may arrange certain reports for the kindergarten children that shall give to the first-grade teacher a basis for grading the incoming class. These reports should give the length of attendance, the ability and physical and mental development of each child who is promoted. This would be of distinct advantage to the child, since it would make it possible to adapt the first-grade work to his ability from the beginning of his primary career; and besides, it would protect the reputation of the kindergarten by furnishing information to the primary teacher which would enable her to realize that there is a big difference between the child who has had two years in the kindergarten, and one who has spent only a portion of that time there. At present, there is a general tendency to average the attainments of all kindergarten children without any consideration as to the time spent by each one in the kindergarten,

with the very natural consequence that there is a decided lowering of the standard of kindergarten results.

The supervisor can also provide some means whereby age alone shall not determine promotion to the first grade. There are often children of six years who are not fitted, either mentally or physically, to do the prescribed first-grade work in a year, and for their own good they should at least be allowed to stay in the kindergarten until they are more developed. This would be an immense help to the first grade teacher, and would prevent the many cases of discouragement and confusion on the part of slow or backward little ones, who are often injured for years by forcing.

She could make, too, some provision for the promotion of such teachers as are not fitted for kindergarten work to the grades where they can be reasonably successful; and also see to it that when a kindergartner shows herself capable of larger responsibilities she shall have a chance of advancement to such school offices as are open to the rank and file of the grade teachers.

ADVANTAGES TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The advantages to the primary school would be similar in character to those just stated; they would follow the same general heads with such modifications as were desirable to bring about the adjustment from the school side.

The installation of the kindergarten as part of the school system would place it in such direct relation with the grades that the opportunity for the spreading of the kindergarten spirit would be much increased. This would benefit the primary school immeasurably for, not only has this spirit, which has been called by someone the "mother spirit," accomplished much in bringing about the newer ideals of education, but it must become even more dominant before we can bring about a greater spontaneity in the grades.

The association of primary and kindergarten teachers, especially if this be accomplished by joint meetings presided over by the supervisor, will in time eliminate the prejudice which has held many school people from a better understanding of kindergarten aims and practice. There are also many definite adjustments on the part of the primary grades, which the supervisor may deem as necessary as the adjustments from the kindergarten side. Some of these are as follows:

1. A scheme should be outlined for a course of study which shall take cognizance of the development which the kindergarten child receives before he enters the first grade. It is generally admitted that he has a better use of his hands, but it is seldom that any provision is made for the use of the interests and experiences which he has acquired by his months of kindergarten training.

These might be utilized directly in the teaching of all the first grade technical studies especially reading; and it should be the supervisor's business to suggest means and methods by which this fund of material shall be utilized and turned to account.

It is the author's opinion, indeed, that at this point might be made the truest connection between the kindergarten and the elementary schools since it is essential that primary teachers shall feel that the kindergarten prepares directly in some manner for the prescribed work of their grade.

2. Such a course of study should be a direct outgrowth of the kindergarten program.

The same interests which dominate the child in the kindergarten are keenest in the life of the primary child, and a conscious provision for meeting these interests could be devised by the supervisor.

3. Selection of appropriate games and stories. In the same manner she could outline primary games and suggest stories suitable for the developing and enlarging interests of the maturing child.

4. *Selection of kindergarten materials and methods for primary school.*—There are many kindergarten materials, and some methods which are applicable to the grades above the kindergarten. These could be selected and incorporated into the practice of the primary school by a competent supervisor, who could outline a course in handwork, for example, which should take into consideration the ability which the children have acquired in the kindergarten, besides providing for a consistent development of manual dexterity and artistic appreciation, through the succeeding grades.

ADVANTAGES TO THE SCHOOL

Since the advantages suggested as accruing to kindergarten and primary school would affect the entire school, it is not necessary to consider this side of the question at any great length. There are a

few financial considerations, however, which might carry weight with a school board.

In the first place there would be a saving in salary by the merging of the positions of kindergarten and primary supervisor.

The average salary for primary supervisor seems to be about two thousand dollars per annum, while kindergarten supervisors will probably average one thousand; in the event, therefore, of a school system employing both, the combined salary for supervision would be approximately three thousand dollars. By combining the two offices, this should be reduced considerably. An opinion only can be ventured on this point, since it has been impossible to find any statistics in regard to such a salary, the only city reporting a system of kindergarten and primary supervision being Rochester, which in 1905 paid a salary of two thousand dollars to its supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades. If an adjustment, however, were made on the basis of a 25 per cent. increase, which would seem a fair estimate of the worth of the added work, there would still be a saving of five hundred dollars.

A supervisor who had in her hands the equipment and furnishing of both kindergarten and primary grades, should be able also to make a better adjustment of the cost of each, bringing the expense of the kindergarten into a better relation to that of the school. This could be done by selecting cheaper materials which would serve the same purpose as those which are commonly used in kindergartens and by reducing the expense of all materials for hand work by buying substantially the same things for both kindergarten and primary grades.

She should also be able to arrange a better salary schedule and better hours of teaching for the kindergarten teachers, thus putting them on a fairer salary basis than they occupy now in many cities.

DISADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

On this side of the question there is one problem so serious that it should be given perhaps the most careful consideration of any item in the whole subject. As this grows out of present conditions it may be looked upon as temporary, but for the time being it embodies real danger, which should be fully realized before the scheme under discussion is accepted.

The problem is to find a person whose training has been such that she could supervise both kindergarten and primary schools with equal success.

While there are many courses in education offered by universities and normal schools which should fit one without any special preparation in methods, to plan a course of study for children between the ages of four and ten, still as all the tendency in the past has been toward specialization, it would be almost impossible to secure anyone who would not be biased in favor of either the kindergarten or the primary school. In either case, a chance for grave mistakes and actual danger is imminent.

If the supervisor chosen be a kindergartner, she might actually damage the kindergarten cause by forcing upon primary teachers kindergarten methods before they have accepted kindergarten principles. There are many methods suitable for kindergarten children which may be really detrimental to older children by retarding them on the play-stage of their development; and to introduce these into the primary school would be premature and unwise, and would be apt to arouse an antagonism on the part of the primary teachers which would defeat the very object for which the supervisor is working.

Then, too, she might not possess either the knowledge or ability which would enable her to shape the primary course of study from the technical side, and her ignorance in this respect and inability to provide practical help and suggestions would give her only a half-hold on the situation.

She might have the wisdom of Solomon in selecting profitable busy work, suitable stories, or educational games which are applicable to the primary grades, but unless she could meet her problem on all sides by having a knowledge of education in its broadest sense, she would be building a structure which would not stand beyond the reign of her personal influence. The hand work might be accepted, her stories told, and her games played, her suggestions being accepted even with enthusiasm, but it would be like building a house upon the sands for it would be the establishment of methods without the groundwork of principles. As a permanent adjustment such work could have no lasting hold on either teacher or school.

On the other hand, a supervisor who has been trained in, and all of whose experience has been along, primary lines, might work untold harm to the kindergarten.

If she has no knowledge of what the kindergarten is trying to accomplish; if to her eyes kindergarten procedure is play which leads only to a disorder of thinking, and a lawlessness of conduct, she would be almost sure to attempt a connection between the kindergarten and the school by shaping the former to the general conduct of the latter. Formal school discipline might be demanded, and training along technical lines so unduly emphasized that the kindergarten would degenerate into a sub-primary school, the maintenance of which would probably not be worth either the time or the money expended.

Under either of these circumstances, it would undoubtedly be better to employ a separate supervisor for each department, since it would be infinitely better to keep the two apart than to retard their ultimate consolidation, by forcing premature or unwise adjustments upon either.

Aside from such possible danger, however, there would seem to be no real advantage to be gained from such a separation.

It is true that such a division might so lighten the duties of each supervisor that she would have more time for specialization, or fuller preparation in her chosen line. It would also allow her to give more individual help to her teachers, a certain amount of which is necessary to any successful supervision.

It is equally true, however, that unless the two supervisors were both unusually interested in bringing about the union of their departments, and could bring to the solution of their problem a certain amount of knowledge which would enable each to know the educational value of the work of the other, we should still be to some extent in the condition which we now deplore. It is not only necessary that practical connections should be devised, but someone must have the authority to enforce them, before any permanent unity between the kindergarten and the primary school can be fully established.

A PRACTICAL DEMONSTRATION

It is unfortunate that this experiment of having one supervisor for both kindergarten and primary schools has not been attempted

in enough cities to enable us to form an average of results. It is encouraging, however, that it has proved successful in most of the places where it has been tried long enough to have passed the experimental stage. As Rochester is the best example of what has been done along this line, it will be permissible perhaps to use it as a practical illustration of what may be accomplished.

There is no question in Rochester as to whether the kindergarten is a part of the schools. It is considered as necessary as the first grade, and every building has its large, especially planned kindergarten room, where morning and afternoon sessions are held. Nor is the kindergarten spirit confined to the kindergarten room. It dominates the entire system, even the high schools, and has been largely responsible for the creation of the splendid ideal of the Rochester schools.

This has been brought about by the close association of teachers and kindergartners, by the successful joint meeting of the two departments, and, most of all, by the plan which has provided for the promotion of kindergarten teachers to the grades, even to principalships, Rochester having the unique distinction of having placed two such teachers in charge of grammar-school buildings.

In short, Rochester seems to have evolved by this joint supervision a practical and successful co-operation of the kindergarten and the primary school, and it is to be hoped that her example will encourage other city school systems to try the plan as rapidly as they can secure supervisors whose training has fitted them to handle successfully both sides of the problem.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. THE WASHINGTON MEETINGS, FEBRUARY 24 AND 26, 1908

General topic: "The Relation of Superintendents and Principals to the Training and Improvement of Their Teachers."

ANALYSIS OF THE GENERAL PROBLEM

- A. The problem—its nature, conditions, and causes.
- B. The solution—chief modes.
 - I. By efficient supervision:
 - 1. Fundamental principles and guiding ideals.
 - 2. The need of superintendents and principals who are masters in the art and science of education.
 - 3. The most effective methods of supervision now in practice.
 - II. By voluntary work—best forms now in practice.
 - III. By required work:
 - 1. In rural-school systems.
 - 2. In city-school systems.
 - IV. By work stimulated by advance in salary or position:
 - 1. Advance based upon promotional examinations.
 - 2. Advance based upon completion of accredited courses of study.
 - V. Miscellaneous:
 - 1. Special courses of study for teachers in service; credit to be given in normal schools and colleges for completion of these non-resident courses.
 - 2. The use of educational publications.
 - (a) By the general educational press.
 - (b) By normal schools and colleges.
 - 3. An eligible waiting-list determined by accepted evidence of preparation and cadet teaching.
 - 4. Leave of absence with or without pay.
- C. The problem and its solution from the teacher's point of view.
 - I. The need, spirit, and attitude.
 - II. The problem of time, energy and expense.
 - III. Freedom of individuality under supervision.
- D. Academic professional preparation before entering service in its relation to progress under superintendent or principal.

Discussion was based upon the Society's *Seventh Yearbook*, Part I. The following programs of ten-minute discussions were carried out:

PROGRAM FOR MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 7:45 P. M.

STRATTON D. BROOKS, *Presiding*.

Introduction of the Subject.

CHARLES D. LOWRY, District Superintendent of Schools, *Chicago*.

"A Survey of the Subject as Derived from a Study of Reports from Superintendents and Principals."

JOSEPH S. TAYLOR, District Superintendent, *New York City*.

"Methods of Supervision by the Principal Compared with the Methods of Supervision by the Superintendent."

W. L. STEPHENS, Superintendent of Schools, *Lincoln, Neb.*

"Salary as Affected by Professional Improvement. The Lincoln Plan."

J. STANLEY BROWN, Superintendent Township High School, *Joliet, Ill.*

"The Qualifications of Superintendents and Principals as Affecting the Solution of the Problem."

ALBERT S. COOK, Superintendent of Schools, *Baltimore County, Md.*

"The Improvement of Teachers through Supervision in the County Schools of Maryland."

CLARENCE F. CARROLL, Superintendent of Schools, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"Advantages of the All-Day Grade Institute."

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, Supervisor of Kindergartens and Primary Education, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"The Problem and Its Solution as Seen by the Primary Supervisor."

FRANK W. COOLEY, Superintendent of Schools, *Evansville, Ind.*

"How Secure Continuous Professional Growth of Teachers, thus Preventing Arrested Development."

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Superintendent of Schools, *St. Louis, Mo.*

"Individual Freedom and Initiative as Factors in Improvement of Teachers."

PROGRAM FOR WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 4:30 P. M.

REUBEN POST HALLECK, Principal Boys' High-School, *Louisville, Ky.*

"The Superintending of High-school Teachers."

GEORGE E. GAY, Superintendent of Schools, *Haverhill, Mass.*

"The Superintendent's Opportunity and Obligation to Assist His Teachers in Both Instruction and Management."

GERTRUDE EDMUND, Principal Training School for Teachers, *Lowell, Mass.*

"The Training and Improvement of Young Teachers during Their Period of Probation."

CHARLES MCKENNY, President State Normal School, *Milwaukee, Wis.*

DAVID FELMLEY, President Illinois State Normal University.

JOHN R. KIRK, President State Normal School, *Kirksville, Mo.*

"The Relation of Academic Professional Preparation before Entering

Service to Satisfactory Progress under the Superintendent or Principal."

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT, University of Wisconsin.

"The Educational Seminar for Teachers in Service."

GEORGE A. BROWN, Editor *School and Home Education*, *Bloomington, Ill.*

"The Use of the Educational Press by Superintendents and Principals."

H. A. HOLLISTER, High-School Visitor, University of Illinois.

"The Advancement of Teachers through Supervision."

JOHN W. COOK, President State Normal School, *DeKalb, Ill.*

"The Importance of Abundant Life, Energy, and Spirit."

F. B. DYER, Superintendent of Schools, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*

"The Cincinnati Plan."

General discussion: Superintendent H. M. Slauson, Ann Arbor, Mich., Professor George D. Strayer, Columbia University, and Superintendent Charles E. Chadsey contributed some valuable additions to the general discussion.

The discussion carried far beyond the time for closing, but still there were several who were unable to present the special consideration of the problem they had come prepared to give.

II. BUSINESS

The President called attention to the importance of members having their public or school libraries buy the bound sets of the *Yearbooks*. Each of the two sets now bound covers a period of five years, and can be had at cost of associate membership for period covered.

The following committees were announced:

(1) COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDIT

C. A. HERRICK, director of School of Commerce, Central High School, Philadelphia, *chairman*.

PAUL H. HANUS, professor of education, Harvard University.

VIRGIL PRETTYMAN, principal Horace Mann High School, Teachers College, Columbia University.

A. S. WHITNEY, professor of education, University of Michigan.

W. J. S. BRYAN, principal Central High School, St. Louis.

W. A. SCOTT, director course in commerce, University of Wisconsin.

FRANK V. THOMPSON, principal High School of Commerce, Boston.

(2) COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

J. STANLEY BROWN, superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.,
chairman.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY, professor of education, Leland Stanford Jr. University.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

A. CASWELL ELLIS, associate professor of the science and art of education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

(Vacancy for fifth member not filled.)

Persons elected to active membership were:

BIRD T. BALDWIN, professor of psychology and education, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.

JULIAN A. BURRUSS, director of manual arts, Richmond Public Schools, Richmond, Va.

JACOB H. CARFREY, superintendent of schools, Wakefield, Mass.

MARGARET GIDDINGS, supervisor of kindergartens and first grades, Denver, Col.

H. E. GILES, superintendent of schools, Hinsdale, Ill.

JOSEPH M. GWINN, professor of education, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

SAMUEL E. HARWOOD, professor of pedagogy and training, Southern Illinois State Normal University, Carbondale, Ill.

WALTER R. HATFIELD, public school principal, Chicago, Ill.

EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK, head of department of psychology and child-study, State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.

HARRIET M. MILLS, New York Froebel Normal, New York City.

HARVEY C. MINNICH, dean State Normal College, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

JOSEPH ROSIER, superintendent of schools, Fairmount, W. Va.

LYNN M. SAXTON, instructor in City College, New York City.

C. E. WARRINER, superintendent of schools, Saginaw, Mich.

ARCHIBALD C. WILLISON, superintendent of schools, Allegany County, Cumberland, Md.

HENRY S. YOUKER, superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Wis.

The committee on noninations, consisting of Walter E. Ranger, F. Louis Soldan, William E. Hicks, Frederick E. Bolton, and Edward F. Buchner, reported as follows:

For president—CHARLES McKENNY, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

For secretary-treasurer—MANFRED J. HOLMES, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

For members of the Executive Committee—C. F. CARROLL, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N. Y., and W. S. SUTTON, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

The report of the nominating committee was adopted and the nominees declared elected.

Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle was appointed chairman of a committee to make such arrangements as might be necessary for a joint session with the Education Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, to be held at Baltimore next December.

III. FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1907

Ordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	\$204.46	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I, postage, etc.....	20.39	
To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	328.73	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II, postage, etc.....	23.50	
	<u>577.08</u>	\$577.08

Debtor to Secretary's Expenses:

To clerk, office help, and supplies.....	\$103.30	
To traveling expenses, including Los Angeles trip....	185.30	
To printing and stationery.....	44.50	
To postage and express.....	56.30	
To telephone and telegraph messages.....	6.25	
To salary as appropriated by Society.....	100.00	
	<u>495.65</u>	
		\$1,072.73

Ordinary Income

Credit thru the University of Chicago Press:

By balance in favor of the National Society, Dec. 31, 1906.....	\$ 70.39	
By balance due National Society from sales of books.....	258.99	
	<u>329.38</u>	\$329.38

Credit thru the Secretary-Treasurer:

By balance per statement December 31, 1906.....	\$222.51	
By 147 active memberships.....	\$441.00	
By 94 associate memberships.....	94.00	
	<u>535.00</u>	
By books and exchange.....	2.47	
	<u>759.98</u>	
		1,089.36
Balance of credits over debits...		\$16.63

Extraordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To reprint from plates 500 copies <i>Third Herbart Yearbook</i> and supplement.....	\$ 77.95	
To reprint <i>First Herbart Yearbook</i> , 600 copies	232.47	
	<u>310.42</u>	\$310.42

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT

Between January 1, 1908, and February 17, 1908, receipts from dues have amounted to \$343.00. This somewhat more than covers indebtedness to date. No statement from the University of Chicago Press is available to show sales between these dates. Such statement would no doubt show quite a sum to the credit of the Society.

The National Society is accumulating considerable property and business interests as a desirable foundation for carrying on studies and investigations that call for use of more money than has been available heretofore. The constitution should be amended creating trustees or directors to properly care for these interests.

The property is in *Yearbooks* and plates. The most of the books will ultimately be sold. A safe estimate of the royalty value of these books is over \$3,000.00. There are in addition to this many thousand pages of electrotypes and stereotype plates. The University of Chicago Press has cultivated the general market for the books and the income through the general trade channels is increasing yearly.

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